

# **Sustainable Development of Ecotourism with Emphasis on Lebanon**

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# **Providing Long-term Solutions to the Problem of Rural Depopulation in Developing Countries through Sustainable Development:**

## **A Case Study of Lebanon**



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## Abstract

This study focuses on the major causes of out-migration from rural areas in developing countries. In addressing ways of eliminating its harmful impacts on both natural and cultural resources, the research considers some of the key concepts that might be applied in finding more sustainable and longer-term solutions to reduce the volume and impact of the rural exodus in developing countries such as Lebanon.

At the present time, rural regions in these countries rely heavily on agriculture for their continued existence, but this does not generate sufficient employment or income to encourage the indigenous population to remain. Thus, poverty and lack of opportunity are seen as the major reasons for the rural exodus. However, in many such countries, rural regions are rich in natural and cultural resources, offering alternative or additional opportunities for improving the social and economic condition for local people. But in seeking to capitalise on these, it is important to avoid inappropriate development which ignores or impairs the cultural and natural resource heritage. So, in looking forward, this research explores the potential of ecotourism as a means of reducing out-migration by improving social and economic conditions for the rural population in a sustainable manner.

In seeking to provide a firm basis on which to propose overall policy shifts in developing countries together with the consequent regional and local strategies, this research explores the concepts of sustainable development, rural livelihood and ecotourism. In doing this it draws on earlier and on-going experiences of natural resource management policies in North America and Europe, where there has been considerable experience in protecting the overall resource base with a view to creating sustainable futures for rural areas with a particular importance for natural and cultural heritage.

The problems of rural out-migration and possible solutions to reduce its negative effect on the area are explored in detail through a case study of the “Qadisha-Cedars” rural region in Lebanon. This is an area that has experienced major problems of rural depopulation and is currently under threat through locally-driven economic activities which are characterised by short-term economic gain that pose a major threat to the longer-term survival of the natural and cultural heritage of the locality. The impacts of a long-standing lack of understanding and interest on the part of government are explored together with new and more enlightened approaches being developed since the early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries by countries like the USA, Canada and France. This helps highlight the need for greater levels of co-ordination and integration of national, regional and local policies, based firstly on a greater understanding of the principles on which sustainable futures might be achieved, and secondly on the need to listen to, and understand the concerns of local people and the basis on which they would feel able to embrace the principles of sustainable development. There needs to be a meeting of the “top-down” view of government and the bottom-up view of local communities.

Having advocated the need to reduce rural poverty through the introduction of sustainable ecotourism based on a rural livelihood management framework, the results are justified by proposing a scenario followed by a model to undertake its implementation and finalised with a set of recommendations.

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## List of abbreviations

ARD	Arab Resource Development
AFD	Agence Française pour le Développement
CAS	Central Administration for Statistics
CBA	Community Based Associations
CCA	Carrying Capacity Assessment
CDR	Council for Development and Reconstruction
CNP	Cévennes National Park
CSD	Commission on Sustainable Development
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DOE	Department of Environment
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council (UN)
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EIB	European Investment Bank
ESRPF	Earth Summit Rio Plus Five
ETE	Ecological Tourism in Europe
EU	European Union
FAO	Food & Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GDP	Gross Development Product
GEF	Global Environmental Facility
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICSD	Interagency Committee on Sustainable Development
IUCN	International Union for the conservation of Nature
IYE 2002	International Year of Ecotourism
LAC	Limits of Acceptable Change
LEDO	Lebanese Environmental Development Observatory
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
LEDO	Lebanese environment development Observatory
METAP	Mediterranean Environmental Technical Assistance Program
MIL	Mission Irfed-Liban
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
MoE	Ministry of Environment
MoF	Ministry of Finance
MoI	Ministry of Industry
MoPWT	Ministry of Public Works & Transportation
MoSA	Ministry of Social Affairs
MoT	Ministry of Tourism
MPU-MLF	Montreal Protocol Unit-Multilateral Fund
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NSTC	National Sustainable Tourism Council
RDA	Regional Development Authority
RDC	Rural Development Commission
ROS	Recreational Opportunity Spectrum
SER	State of the Environment Report
SI	Sustainable Indicators
SOTER	State Of the Environment Report
UET	Ultimate Environment Threshold



UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Economic Fund
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNSTAT	United Nations Statistical Office
VAMP	Visitors Activities Management Process
VERP	Visitors Experience and Resource Protection
VIM	Visitors Impact Management
WB	World Bank
WCS	World Conservation Strategy
WHO	World Health Organization
WTO	World Tourism Organization
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

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# **1 Introduction**

## 1.1 Background and context of the research

In the last quarter of the twentieth century a new trend in exploring a long-term growth approach named “sustainable development” was developed. It started at the World Conservation Strategy (WCS) meeting in March 1980 (IUCN, 1980). The main purpose of the WCS conference was to come up with a strategy for “the conservation of the Earth’s living resources in the face of major international environmental problems”. It focused mainly on deforestation, desertification, ecosystem degradation, destruction and extinction of species, loss of genetic diversity, lessening of cropland, pollution, and soil erosion (Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 1997, 2000). This concept of sustainable development which relies on implementing economic actions that are environmentally sustainable provided a continuous challenge to people and governments. On the one hand, there were those who consider preservation and proper management to natural resources and wild life as the most important policy to reach sustainable development, and on the other those who view quick economic gain as the most valuable (Brown, 1994; Jacobs *et al.*, 1987; Reid, 1995; Pearce *et al.*, 1989; Wilson, 1997).

At the beginning of 1992, an international conference took place in Rio De Janeiro, Brazil by request from the UN General Assembly and was called “Earth Summit”. This summit touched on outlining priority issues for the twenty-first century such as the climate change, biodiversity and forests, and a global action plan for Agenda 21. It also included a strengthening of international institutions, especially the UN in order to follow up and facilitate the achievement of these aims (Johnson, 1993). The *Agenda 21 Action Plan* touched mainly on social, economic and governance issues. Urgent issues such as equity between the poor and the rich, population explosion and wasteful consumption were raised. Integration of the environment in the development process and the role of local and national governments in capacity building and in promoting sustainable development were also discussed.



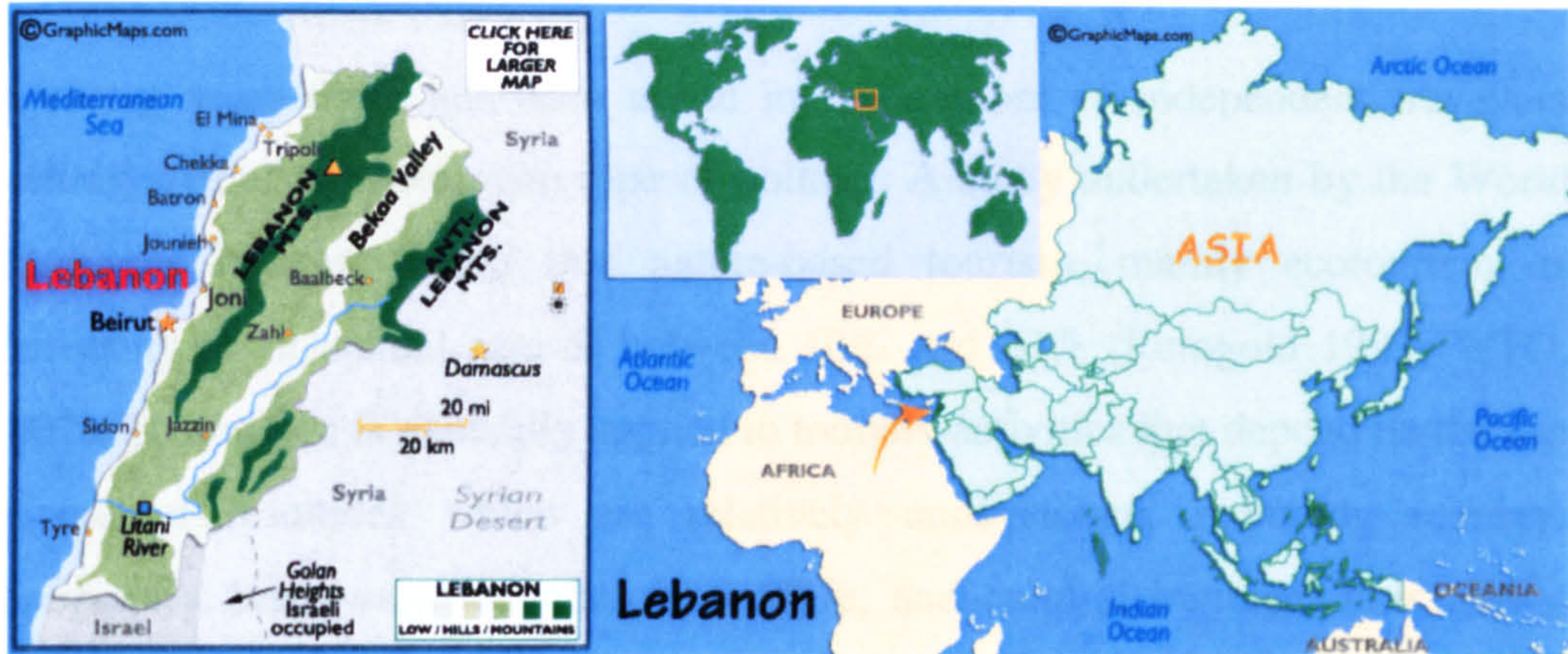
*Agenda 21* placed strong emphasis on people and on their communities and organizations (including NGOs). It recommended a “capacity building” that can be achieved by developing the abilities of institutions to manage the various changes and activities required of them. It also agreed to set up in 1992 a CSD (Commission on Sustainable Development) as part of the Agenda 21 to monitor progress in achieving the goals that were agreed at the Rio Summit. The *Agenda 21 Action Plan* tried to stimulate discussions about indicators for sustainable monitoring and follow up on development (Andrew, 1993; Bell and Morse, 2000; HMSO, 1994; Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 2000; WTO, 1993).

The United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) and the United Nations Population Funds (UNPF) have detected a direct relationship between *Sustainable Development* and *Rural Livelihood*. This has been found to have a direct socio-cultural, economic and environmental impact that touches directly people’s dignity, well-being, progress, development and public participation (UNDP, 1997; UNECWS, 1980). They concluded that an underprivileged rural livelihood can be considered a basic source for environmental deterioration, mainly because it encompasses social inequity and poverty which are two major causes for environmental degradation and rural migration to urban areas (European commission, 2003; UNDP, 2003).

Poor rural families who are on the brink of destitution and have no source of revenue available to them have two choices. The *first* is to consume the physical capital. The *second* is to migrate to the urban areas. In both cases they are endangering the natural and cultural assets that form the basis for future survival and sustainability (UNDP, 2003; World Bank, 1990a; 1990b; 1992; 1997). A major challenge that the research faces is to explore the potential of sustainable development and rural livelihood as means of controlling rural migration to the urban areas in developing countries like Lebanon. It also investigates strategies that focus on eliminating poverty in these areas by developing enduring sources of revenue for generations to come (see Figure 1.1).



Figure 1.1 Location map of Lebanon



Developing countries such as Lebanon rely mainly on agricultural, cultural activities and services for economic development. They also encompass non-urban recreation, leisure areas, natural reserves and rural lodges. The EU LEADER program (Liaison Entre Actions pour la Développement des Economies Rurales) has identified a diversity of socio-economic conditions for the classification of financial support of rural areas. To be considered rural and eligible of financial support, the area should be located in a peri-urban region where agriculture employs a sizable portion of the working population. Agriculture should form the basis of the economy with traditional large-scale landholdings and natural or protected land. The region must also be geared towards ecotourism with small-scale facilities that are available in large numbers (Lane, 1994a; 1994b; OECD, 1994; Hoggart *et al.*, 1995; Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997:13).

Farrell and Thirion (2000) considered tourism as one of the major services that could develop rural areas. They identified some major detailed criteria that should be satisfied to achieve successful tourism. The most important of these are that *firstly*, the area should have a highly consolidated identity and social structure, where a large portion of the networking population must be involved in tourism. *Secondly*, the region should develop small family-run facilities, cottage industries and small and medium-size enterprises to supply local markets (including the tourism market). This must be accompanied by close ties between the various local business sectors. *Thirdly*, local authorities must implement restriction policies on buildings, infrastructure, and tourism development in favour of a



better protection and use of natural and cultural resources.

In recent years there has been a rise in the number of independent travellers seeking a rural or ecotourism type of holiday. A study undertaken by the World Resources Institute found that nature-based tourism, mainly ecotourism, is increasing at an annual rate of between 10% and 30% (Reingold 1993; WTO, 2002). Ecotourism is generally applied to tourism activities that depend on the use of natural resources which are relatively undeveloped, including scenery, topography, waterways, vegetation, wildlife, and cultural heritage. It is also a socio-cultural, resource-based form of tourism, based on the interaction with the local social and cultural activities that are located in the natural zone and its vicinity. It is associated with operators, running nature-oriented group tours and individuals who use natural resources for the purpose of enjoying, experiencing and learning about the natural and socio-culture environment (rural and farm tourism) of the region. It involves mainly the following activities: nature, adventure, education, culture and agriculture in the spirit of appreciation, participation and sensitivity (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Fennell, 1999; Wallance & Pierce, 1996). This activity is meant to be sustainable, low-impact, non-consumptive, and locally oriented and should add to the well-being, conservation and preservation of the area visited. Ecotourism is considered as a market that is in constant growth. This type of countryside tourism is believed now to have a significant potential as a tool for economic generation (Roberts and Hall, 2001; Hall, 1991).

The ecotourism societies, as well as other tourism experts, consider ecotourism to be one of the fastest growing segments of tourism (Buckley, 1994; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Dearden and Harron, 1993; Ecotourism Society, 1998; Wild, 1994; WTO, 1999). Equally, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) has acknowledged tourism in general and ecotourism in particular as the saviour of rural areas (WTO, 1996b). Simultaneously, the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Swiss Development Agency (SDC), the World Bank (WB), World Tourism Organization (WTO), and many other international organizations have, through a series of international forums, declared ecotourism and natural site

management as two major means for preserving natural resources and an effective tool for alleviating poverty.

In July 1998 the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) proposed to members of the UN General Assembly, designating 2002 as the International Year of Ecotourism (IYE). They considered the designation of the IYE 2002 as an encouragement for intensified cooperative efforts by governments, international and regional organizations as well as non-governmental organizations. The aim for IYE was to reach the goals set by Agenda 21 concerning the development and the protection of the environment.

Recognizing the growing importance of ecotourism, in December 1998 the UN General Assembly accepted the proposal presented by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), and declared 2002 as the International Year of Ecotourism (IYE). The Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) which was established by the UN after the Rio Summit was advised to implement the IYE. Within the UN system the CSD's Interagency Committee on Sustainable Development (IACSD) mandated the WTO and the UNEP to prepare and coordinate supportive activities for the year. The aim of these international organisations was to develop a tourism program mission which shows that the sustainable use and management of the natural, cultural and man-made environment is a basic and an integral part of all tourism development. The 2002 events were carried out through partnerships with the WTO, the International Ecotourism Society (TIES), Ecological Tourism in Europe (ETE) and many others. For international agencies, the sustainable management tools can establish a durable productive base that allows local inhabitants to enjoy a rise in their standard of living. At the same time, local communities will have a better chance of staying in their rural regions and maintaining their natural and cultural resources (UNDP, 2003; UNDP 2004; World Bank, 1994; 1996; 1997; WTO, 2002; WTTC/WTO, 1995; <http://www.barcelona2004.org>).

The UNEP and the WTO consider natural reserves and national parks as a major source of attraction for tourism and ecotourism development and practice. They confirm that tourism has a major role to play in protecting the environment



(WTO, 1983). They encourage developing countries to extend appropriate tourism and ecotourism activities in their natural reserves and national parks. In order to promote tourism development in national parks and protected areas in developing countries, the WTO and the UNEP requested the IUCN to develop guidelines which address ways and means of involving local people living in and around protected areas to obtain social and economic benefits from tourism (WTO, 1983; 1994a; 1994b; 1996b; 1996c).

North America is a leader in initiating natural parks as ecotourism destinations, nationally and internationally. The USA and Canada have developed, since the early twentieth century, a policy and a strategy that aim at developing and managing their national parks. For that reason, this research reviews two parks, one in the USA and one in Canada that possess a long historical background in the development and management of national parks and are classified good ecotourism destinations. In addition the authorities in these parks are eager to offer and to enhance site management policies to sustain their natural and cultural assets, as well as to satisfy their national and international visitors.

Unlike North America, Europe in the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century was overcrowded with people, and more concerned with industrialization and capitalism than with the development of national parks. The industrial and agricultural revolution made major European countries localize their factories around available energy sources and adapt their forestry and natural environment to their agricultural methods. Meanwhile, individual ownership of property in Europe over many centuries had reduced the availability of vast spaces for developing national parks. In the mid 20<sup>th</sup> century and due to efforts made by local communities and NGOs, countries like the France, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Denmark and Germany established a substantial number of parks and natural reserves<sup>1</sup>. The acquisition of land for the creation of these parks was mainly done through donations (Chase, 1987; Hough, 1988; Ise, 1961; Lime *et al.*, 1996).

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<sup>1</sup> The increase in the number of national parks has forced the IUCN in 1962 to classify national parks and reserves into eleven categories (Cutter & Renwick, 1999) (see Appendix 5).

In response to pressures from local authorities, communities and NGOs, countries like France have, over the last forty years, developed a contemporary policy for the creation of its national parks. This management process is intended to preserve and develop the natural rural regions of the country. This policy is based on firm ministerial decrees, direct involvement of the public authorities and the participation of local communities, stakeholders and other non-governmental organizations (ATEN, 2001).

In 1993 the French Government created (by decree), a Sustainable Development Commission. Its aim was to implement the commitments of the Rio De Janeiro Global Conference on the Environment and Development held in 1992. It is actually trying to implement sustainability and rural development through the preservation of natural resources at a national level. Such a process includes the development of frameworks that are socially and economically sound and take into consideration the protection of nature and environment, particularly the Mediterranean forests (Ifen, 2000; 2002; MATE, 2000). This procedure is evident in the management and development approach set for the “Cévennes National Park” which dates back to the late sixties.

The “Cévennes National Park” is selected as a contemporary pilot case for the research. It is classified in the IUCN’s list of national parks, and is in the process of implementing the sustainable development principles set by the local Agenda 21, and has recently adopted the “European Charter for Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas”<sup>2</sup> (<http://www.europarc.org>) (see Appendix 13). The park is inhabited by local people and has experienced major rural out-migration in the mid 20<sup>th</sup> century. Forty thousand of its residents live permanently in the park and live directly from economic activities that are developed in it. Local people are willing to improve their region as well as to interact with visitors. This gives the site a particular challenge of balancing the resident’s social and economic needs with the protection of the park’s natural resources.

The establishment of the park is quite recent. It only dates back to the late nineteen sixties and the management team is trying to offer the necessary services

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<sup>2</sup> This charter was developed by a group of representatives from the European protected space and tourism partners and the Europarc federation in 1991.



for locals and visitors. It is aiming to develop and manage the park as a major ecotourism destination (DATAR, 2001; European Commission, 2003) (see Appendix 13). It is also making an effort to protect and sustain the natural and cultural resources as well as to generate income for the locals by developing a monitoring system that relies on qualitative and quantitative indicators (ARADEL, 1999).

A major reason for the selection of this park as a case study for the research is that France has a lot of administrative and regulative similarities to that of Lebanon. It had a mandate in Lebanon from 1919 until 1945. Currently, France is participating in enhancing some of Lebanon’s judicial, administrative, and urban planning laws and regulations (CDR, 1997; 1999; 2004). In fact the Southern Mediterranean part of France has some cultural and natural resemblance to that of Lebanon (See Figure 1.2). The majority of the Lebanese regulatory and administrative procedures concerning the development and management of natural and cultural assets resemble those of the National Parks’ management policy in France (ATEN, 2001).

Figure 1.2 Countries that border the Mediterranean Sea



There is a lack of natural and cultural management strategies in the rural areas of Lebanon. Most of the decisions that touch upon satisfying local societies’ social and economic needs are proposed by national government in a “top-down” approach which does not take into consideration the opinion of local people.



Equally, local communities are badly in need of capacity building and assistance from national government (Carter, 1997; CDR, 2004; MoE, 1998; Simmons, 1994; Joppe, 1996).

Equally, Lebanon possesses many natural reserves that are environmentally threatened due to mismanagement of its natural and cultural resources and rural depopulation. This country has long been known as the “park” of the Middle East, where the scent and cool shade of the coniferous forests are a stimulant to those seeking rest and relaxation. Its famous cedar forests hosted a variety of fauna and flora that thrived on the mountains, valleys, plateaux and coasts. But, over exploitation of its forests that dates back to the ancient Babylonian, Egyptian and Roman periods, has left its mountains and slopes barren only with scattered surviving remnants of the once extensive stands of cedars, fir, juniper and oak (Gannam, 2000; Hayek, 2002; Tohme *et al.*, 1985).

Now the forest cover does not exceed 7% of the country’s total area<sup>3</sup>. Existing forests are governed by the “natural sites and scenes’ law” number 12 issued in September 1939, the “forest law” number 76 issued in 1949 and the “forest protection law” number 558 issued on the 24<sup>th</sup> of July 1996 (MoA, 1997). It was not until 1992 that the concept of nature reserves was introduced to the forest’s legislative laws. The law 121/1992 has established the general recommendations to declare and preserve natural reserves (MoE and LEDO, 2002).

So far, more than seven reserves have been declared by the Ministry of Environment (See Figure 1.3). Each of these reserves has a distinctive richness of species. Their total area is estimated at around 8,000 hectares and represents less than 1% of the country’s total land area. These reserves include forests, islands, and swamps with mountainous and coastal eastern Mediterranean ecosystems. Some local communities and NGOs are trying to manage a few of these reserves with the help and the supervision of the Ministry of Environment. However, many of these natural areas and protected forests are fragile with low resilience, where disturbance can have considerable ecological implications. As for biodiversity, the documented number of living species in the forests, and on the seashores is about

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<sup>3</sup>The major specimens are the cedar, fir, cypress, oak, juniper and olive trees.







As previously discussed, poverty is a major cause for rural migration. It might be reduced through sustainable livelihood development, ecotourism and proper management of the natural and cultural resources of the area (European commission, 2003; UNDP, 2003; Word Bank, 1990a; 1990b; 2003). Lebanon's experience in dealing with these concepts and strategies is still in its early stages. In order for this small developing country to face its environmental and socio-economic challenges, it is essential for it to explore sustainable rural livelihood policies. This can be done by learning from other developed countries in implementing similar strategies (Mowforth *et al.*, 1998; Wilson, 1997; Winter, 1996).

## **1.2 Problems and needs**

Lebanon has the natural and cultural potential to become an ecotourism and a rural tourism destination. Meanwhile, it has limited agricultural resources since it is mostly composed of hilly, rocky and non-cultivated land. Facing this condition, those local rural communities who rely mainly on agriculture have no choice but to search for other sources of income. In doing so the residents are either migrating to urban areas or resorting to other ways and means that are short-term, harmful to the environment, resulting in a loss of the natural and cultural resources. Equally, the government is not doing much to tackle this problem.

There is a lack of vertical and horizontal coordination between government, public institutions and local communities. This situation results in a shortage of effective national management plans, and is causing chaotic implementation of massive buildings, paved roads and stone and gravel quarries in the hinterland. Consequently, many of the young local residents are migrating to urban areas in search for a regular source of income. This out-migration from the rural regions is creating a shortage in the productive stock of human population that has reached an alarming level. It is threatening the preservation of traditional rural artefacts and farming methods that have been conserved for generations. It is also causing overpopulation in the coastal zones where major cities are located and job opportunities are possible. This overpopulation has created "residential poverty belts" around the capital and some major coastal cities. It also caused pressure on the existing infrastructure, municipal services and transportation means by

generating air, sea and noise pollution and social conflicts (CAS, 1997; CDR, 2004; CDR and EAURIF, 1997; MoSA and UNFPA, 2000; Nehme, 2001).

To answer these needs, the study looks at recommendations and suggestions derived from international summits, conferences and organisations. In this respect the research analyses concepts such as sustainable rural livelihood and ecotourism. It examines and reviews situations in North America as well as a contemporary pilot case study the Cévennes National Park in France and a critical case study in Lebanon. The French case study represents a “doing-well” prototype for the development of an appropriate management framework for Lebanon’s upper rural natural reserves. The critical case study in Lebanon represents a typical situation that is not doing well in most of the rural regions of Lebanon.

### **1.3 Aims and objectives**

Since the early 1950’s international tourism has experienced a rapid expansion. Tourist arrivals have increased from 25 million in 1950 to an estimated 476 million in 1992 and more than 657 million in 1999 (WTO, 2000a). Actually tourism is concentrated in specialized beaches, mountain resort areas, cultural centres and highly urbanized cities, and has proven to be a good generator of money (Bramwell and Lane, 1993). In the Middle East, from the year 1995 and to the year 2000, the tourism market grew by an average of 10% per year (WTO, 2002). Lebanon with an area of 10,450 Km<sup>2</sup> and a population of 3.5 million was visited by 1.4 million tourists per year prior to the 1974 civil war. They came to enjoy its good climate, built heritage, and nature. Tourism accounted for 20% of Lebanon’s GDP.

Now Lebanon’s Diaspora grew to 12 million overseas Lebanese, living in the Americas, Europe, Africa, and Asia. Since the war ended, recovery has been steady, but the number of visitors is still less than 1 million per year. In 2000, there were 741,648 arrivals. In 2002, there were 956,464 visitors. Tourism now accounts for around 10% of GDP (Lebanon Bank, 2002; MOT, 2003). Regional competition for business, natural and cultural heritage tourism, particularly from Cyprus, Turkey, Jordan, Egypt, and the UAE, greatly increased during the last twenty years. Political instability still has a negative impact on the entire region.



But, with a wealth of cultural and natural sites, strong business skills and facilities, hospitable and multi-lingual people, Mediterranean climate, good infrastructure, promotion, and proper natural-cultural resources management, Lebanon could once again attract a substantial number of visitors, to become a major player in the tourism sector (JICA *et al.*, 2004; WTO, 1996a; 1999; 2002).

## **Aims**

In spite of the wealth in cultural and natural resources and the potential for tourists to visit Lebanon's countryside, ecotourism is not developing in the rural areas of the country. In fact, the rural residents are facing scarcities in revenue and a high rate of unemployment, forcing them to migrate to urban regions (see Figure 1.3). This phenomenon is causing a tremendous pressure on the overpopulated coastal regions. The aim of this study will be to answer the research question on how to reverse the out-migration trend in the rural parts of Lebanon and to stop the damage to its natural and cultural resources.

## **Objectives**

To achieve the above mentioned aims, the research must pursue the following objectives. *Firstly*, investigate if factors like poverty, lack of economical opportunity and need for communication and interest on the part of the central government towards local residents have brought out-migration in the countryside areas of Lebanon. *Secondly*, analyse key concepts such as sustainable development, rural livelihood and ecotourism while drawing on earlier on-going experiences of natural resource management policies in North America and Europe, where there has been considerable experience in developing and protecting the overall resource base with a view to creating sustainable futures for rural areas with a particular importance for natural and cultural heritage. *Finally*, introduce a sustainable ecotourism based on a rural livelihood management framework that can be applied in developing longer-term solutions to the "Qadisha-Cedars" rural region in Lebanon. This can be possible by offering alternative or additional opportunities for improving the social and economic conditions for local people and reducing the volume and impact of the rural exodus on the cultural and natural resource heritage.



## 1.4 Outline of the thesis

The thesis is composed of four major parts; Chapters 1 and 2 cover introduction and methodology; Chapters 3 and 4 explore theoretical concepts and management frameworks; Chapters 5, 6 and 7 investigate and analyse case studies; and Chapters 8 and 9 conclude with a proposal in the form of a scenario, a model for its application and a set of recommendations (see Figure 2.5).

*Chapter 1* “Introduction”. This offers a general introduction about the background to the thesis and its context. It shows how some international conferences, summits and forums specify causes and identify solution for the major question the research is trying to answer i.e. depopulation in the rural areas of Lebanon. The chapter then introduces the study’s aims and objectives and concludes with an outline of the thesis.

*Chapter 2* “Research Methodology”. This identifies the basis for adopting an approach that applies inductive and deductive methodologies, mixed qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis approach on concepts and case studies. It highlights the purpose for using these concepts and case studies in an attempt to reach an answer to the aims and objectives of the study (see Tables 2.1; 2.2; 2.3 and Figures 2.4; 2.8). The chapter then explains the reason for developing a scenario and a model as major means of answering the research question (see Figure 2.4 and para 2.24).

*Chapter 3* “Sustainable Rural Livelihood”. It studies the means to achieve sustainable development based on recommendations produced by international summits and conferences in the last part of the twentieth century. It explores the elements that make up *rural livelihood* and the major steps and strategies that should be followed to achieve sustainable rural livelihood (see Figure 3.1). Finally the chapter identifies poverty as a major reason for rural depopulation and recommends proper natural and cultural site management and diversified strategies as solutions to reduce out-migration.

*Chapter 4* “Ecotourism and Site management”. This provides an exhaustive analysis of the concept of ecotourism. It highlights its ecological characteristics and economic potential to reduce poverty. It explores the possibility of integrating

ecotourism into rural livelihood strategies and evaluates its impact on the natural and cultural resources. It discusses two national parks that are considered “ecotourism destinations” and “good-examples” of the evolution of Natural Parks in North America. The chapter then defines certain elements, indicators, codes, and specific measures that are essential for the development of an appropriate *site management framework*. Following on it highlights on the importance of the tourist as a major client of the ecotourism sector through defining his/her profile, requirements and needs. Finally, it sets the foundation for the development of an *ecotourism* and a *site management framework* to be used in chapter 5 for analysing the Cévennes National Park pilot case study in France.

**Chapter 5** “Cévennes National Park case study in France”. This chapter analyzes an empirical case study which has experienced developing a progression of site management programmes. This park possesses common physical and administrative characteristics to that of the Qadisha-Cedars case study in Lebanon. It illustrates in practice a group of management principles developed in chapters 3 and 4. It also creates a comprehensive insight into the whole national park management process. Equally, it demonstrates how the authorities of the park visualize successful sustainable national park management. As a result this chapter helps generate a framework for the development of a national park in Lebanon.

**Chapter 6** “Sustainable Rural Livelihood in Lebanon”. This Looks into the major natural and cultural elements that constitute “sustainable rural livelihood” in Lebanon as discussed in previous chapters. It examines strategies that were set by consecutive national governments, identifies the needs and questions the presence of long lasting achievements in the rural areas. This investigation is applied by following the guidelines set in previous chapters.

**Chapter 7** “Qadisha-Cedars case study in Lebanon”. This is an extensive study and a diagnostic of the “Qadisha-Cedars” region since it is selected as a “typical” and “critical” case study (see para 2.2.2). The process takes into consideration some of the major guidelines that were derived from Yellowstone, Banff and the Cévennes National Park, and covers the socio-demographic, bio-physical, cultural and tourism characteristics of the region. The chapter tries to understand the



characteristics of the area, and to highlight its needs. This investigation leads to the proposition of an interconnected solution in the form of a “scenario” for the development of the region. This scenario aims to develop and conserve three major areas of the case study: “Qadisha valley”, “the Highlands that surround the valley” and the “Cedars area”.

**Chapter 8** “Management of the Qadisha-Cedars Region”. So far, the research has proposed a scenario for the development of the region. This chapter highlights the need to develop a mechanism for implementing this scenario. As a result a *model* that takes into consideration all the issues discussed at an earlier stage of the research and which can promise appropriate application of the scenario is created. The *model* tries to represent the application of the scenario in an understandable and practical manner while embracing major key elements that are essential for its application. It defines the aspects of the management methods that are relevant to the problem under investigation. It also clarifies the relationships among the major factors that are essential for the development and management process in order to formulate a logical solution that answers the research question (see Figure 8.3). In this respect the chapter validates the scenario developed for the Qadisha-Cedars based on the guidelines set by the *model* (see Tables 8.1; 8.2; 8.3; 8.4). This process helps to identify if the model is able to act as a tool to facilitate, guide and orient the development of the scenario. It also probes the model’s ability to evaluate a solution.

## **1.5 Conclusion and recommendations**

This study concludes in **Chapter 9** with a summation of findings obtained from the previous eight chapters. It validates the final results and questions the degree of success the study has accomplished in order to satisfy the aims and objectives set at the beginning of the research (see para 1.3). This chapter also compares the local final output i.e. the scenario for the development of the “Qadisha-Cedars” and its “application model”, with that of the “Cévennes National Park” and evaluates the results. It offers a final version of the model accompanied by a set of recommendations and future prospects on what can be done to put into practice the final output on other regions of the country (see Figures 9.2; 9.3).

## 2 Research Approach

## 2.1 Introduction

Frankfort and Nachimas (2002) stated that Social scientists operate on two worlds, the world of ideas, theories and models and the world of observation and experience. By developing a systematic connection between both worlds a researcher can enhance the goals of the social science. This study selected a social science method to help *analyze, explain, predict, and understand theoretical concepts and empirical phenomena* that are of major importance to the research (Babbie, 1998; Blalock, 1982; Frankfort and Nachmias, 2002; Hedrick, 1993).

The study started by applying an *inductive approach* that was developed from the ground up where by the research used a quantitative method and style to accumulate and analyze data on the area of study Lebanon (see Tables 2.2; 2.2; 2.3). This method was used to help narrow the research into a specific research question. It then tried to find assumptions and concept theories and case studies that were relevant to the research question by looking at national and international suggestions. In this phase, the research acknowledged specific concepts like sustainable development, rural livelihood and ecotourism as well as management theories such as the Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) and Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) and case studies like Yellowstone, Banff, the Cévennes and Qadisha-Cedars. The research then used a *deductive approach* on these concepts, theories and case studies to guide the interpretation of the results and to modify accept or reject these concepts and theory based on the findings.

The research also used a quantitative approach to capture and discover these concepts' meaning by extracting themes or generalizations from evidence and organizing data to present a coherent, consistent picture. The research also conducted a quantitative empirical research on the Cévennes National Park case study. The study slowly developed confidence that the concepts and theory that were analysed by the research can be used to answer to the research question. As a result a development and management framework for rural areas was developed (model) (see Tables 2.2; 2.2; 2.3 and Figures 2.4; 8.3).

This process was followed by an *inductive approach* applied on a macro level to the area of study Lebanon. The research started by exploring the area's ability to



accept or reject the concepts and theories that were developed throughout the research. This was done by applying a quantitative approach that relies on empirical observation and data collection. The purpose of this process was to evaluate the area of study’s ability to satisfy the requirements set by the research for development of a sustainable rural livelihood. This process was followed by a *deductive approach* on a critical case study in Lebanon, the “Qadisha-Cedars” region. The output was validated by applying on it three propositions. Finally, a summation of results was made and assessed by the research study to develop confidence in the ability to answer the research question on how to reduce massive rural out-migration to the coastal cities and reduce its negative affect on the natural, social and cultural assets of the Lebanon (see Tables 2.1 and Figures 2.4; 2.5) (Creswell, 2003; Newman, 2003).

**Table 2.1 Inductive versus deductive approach in the research process**

Inductive approach	Deductive approach
Begins with few assumptions and broad orienting concept	Use theory or concept to guide the design of a study and interpretation of results
Theory develops from the ground up as the research gather and analyzes data	Conduct empirical research to comprehend the theory
Theory emerges slowly, concept by concept and proposition by proposition in the study area	Slowly develop confidence that some parts of the theory are true
During the research process the concepts and empirical generalizations emerge and mature	Researcher may modify accept or reject some propositions of a theory based on the findings.
Relationships become visible, and researcher weaves together knowledge from different studies into more abstract theory or concept	Researcher may decide to accept, abandon or change the theory as the evidence for or against the theory mounts with time

Sources: Creswell, 2003; Neuman, 2003

The research used two empirical and detailed case studies, the pilot case study (Cévennes National Park) and the critical one (Qadisha-Cedars). The pilot case study (Cévennes National Park) was selected because it represented a complicated situation that deals with many issues at the same time, and because it offered useful techniques of data collection and problem solving. The critical case study (Qadisha-Cedars) was selected to test a formulated theory already developed while studying the pilot case study (Yin, 2003a). In both cases a convergence method was used to validate and triangulate the facts. The convergence method summed up all the accumulated information. It used the interviews and direct

observation in the case studies to triangulate the results already collected (Yin, 2000, 2003a, 2003b) (see Figure 2.1).

As for data collection, the research used a mixture of qualitative and quantitative research approaches and styles (see Tables 2.2; 2.3). It addressed a substantial body of literature, archival records and statistics on local and global historical and scientific events that are related to the actual subjects in question. It also used semi-structured individual and focus group interviews, surveys, and observations (Brannen *et al.*, 1992; Bryman, 1998; Denzin, 1994; Kozlowski, 1972; Kvale, 1996; Putcha *et al.*, 2004) (see Figure 2.4 and Appendix 3).

Table 2.2 Quantitative research versus Qualitative research

Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research
Test hypothesis that the researcher begins with.	Capture and discover meaning once the researcher becomes immersed in the data.
Concepts are in the form of distinct variables.	Concepts are in the form of themes, motifs, generalizations, and taxonomies
Measures are systematically created before data collection and are standardized.	Measures are created in an ad hoc manner and depend on individual setting or researcher.
Data are in the form of numbers from precise measurements	Data are in the form of words and images from documents, observations, and transcripts.
Theory is largely causal	Theory can be causal or non-causal
Procedures are standard, and replication is assumed.	Research procedures are particular, and replication is very rare.
Analysis proceeds by using statistics, tables, or charts and discussing how what they show relates to hypothesis	Analysis proceeds by extracting themes or generalizations from evidence and organizing data to present a coherent, consistent picture.

Sources: Creswell, 2003: Neuman, 2003

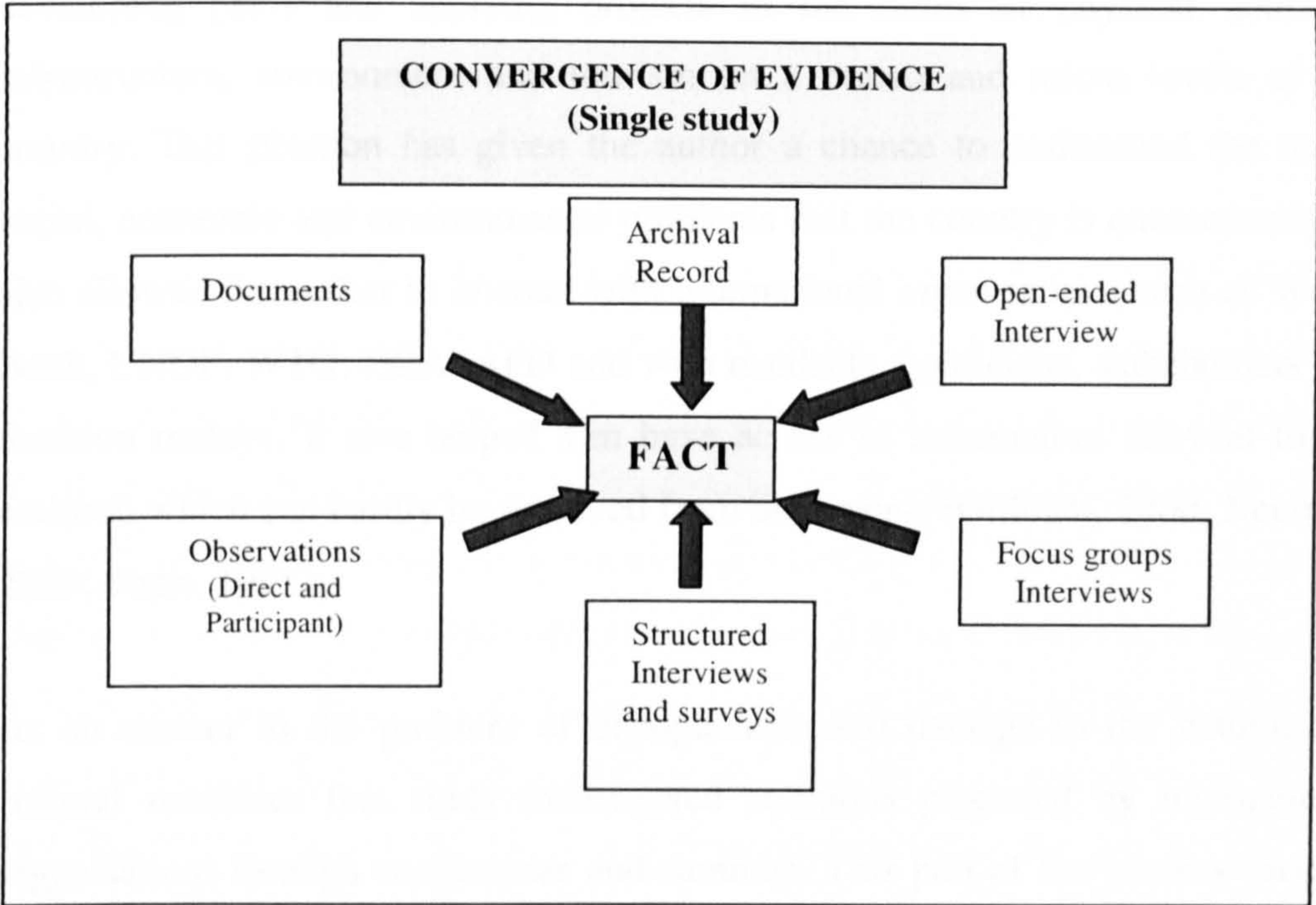
Table 2.3 Quantitative Style versus Qualitative Style

Quantitative Style	Qualitative Style
Measure objective styles	Construct social reality, cultural meaning
Focus on variables	Focus on interactive process events
Reality is key	Authenticity is key
Value free	Values are present and explicit
Independent of context	Situation constrained
Many cases, subjects	Few cases, subjects
Statistical analysis	Thematic analysis
Researcher is detached	Researcher involved

Sources: Creswell, 2003: Neuman, 2003



Figure 2.1 Convergence as a multiple source of evidence for a single case study approach



Source: Yin, 2000

2.2 Research process

The research process followed four major steps:

- 1. Selection of an area of study, identification of a problem and development of a research question;
- 2. Defining a theoretical framework and formulating a tentative answer (hypothesis) to the research question;
- 3. Finalizing the results in the form of a model;
- 4. Validation by using triangulation of data and a scenario (see Figure 2.5).

2.2.1 Selection of an area of study and problem identification

**In step one** the research identified the area of study. It recognized rural depopulation as a major problem that is causing damage to natural and cultural resources in Lebanon. It questioned the source of the crisis and tried to find a solution. This problem was put forward based on the author’s personal experience as a senior architect and urban planner<sup>4</sup> at the Council for Development and

<sup>4</sup>Participation in national and international workshops and seminars on tourism, ecotourism, environment and natural reserves management, a state of knowledge in the field, problem solving, personal values, recommendations and requests from a vast literature review.



Reconstruction (CDR)<sup>5</sup> in Lebanon ([www.cdr.gov.lb](http://www.cdr.gov.lb)). The author is in charge of developing plans and applying projects in the fields of physical land-use, infrastructure, environment and tourism on a macro and micro levels of the country. This position has given the author a chance to understand the major social, economic and environmental problems that the country is encountering. It also allowed the author to interact with international organisations such as World Bank, UNDP, WTO, JICA, AFD and with residents, politicians, stakeholders and decision makers. It also helped him have access to information relevant to the research which can hardly be retrieved from documents (Gillham, 2000; Neuman, 2003; Stake, 1995).

As an answer to the problem of depopulation and damage to the natural and cultural resources this study investigated solutions proposed by international organisations through conferences and summits. This part of the process used an *inductive approach* that relied on collecting general data about the region to forecast a future solution (see Table 2.1 and Figure 2.5) (Frankfort and Nachimas, 2002; Shaw and Gould, 2001; Shackley 2001). The data in this stage was accumulated through a series of national and international documents, studies, statistics, publications and interviews with many decision makers in local government and ministries and NGOs. It followed a mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches and styles (see Tables 2.2; 2.3 and Appendices 1; 2; 3).

### 2.2.2 Selection of concepts and case studies

Frankfort and Nachimas (1992) believe that a theoretical framework is a system that combines concepts and case studies in a systematic manner by using description, explanation and predictions. **In step two**, the research method used a theoretical framework based on a *deductive method* (see Table 2.1) whereby concepts and case studies were analysed, examined and questioned in order to comprehend their ability to answer the research question (Al-Shouf Cedar Nature Reserve Publications, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Neuman, 2003; Richie, 2003). Guided by Yellowstone, Banff and Cévennes National Park case studies, the research developed a “natural and cultural resources management framework”

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<sup>5</sup>The CDR is a public institution that is headed by the Prime Minister. It develops plans on a national level and implements major projects in all sectors. Its annual budget is more than 1 billion US dollars.

as a hypothetical solution to the research problem. Information was accumulated from many sources, mainly university libraries, national and international organisations and government reports as well as from a series of lectures and conferences and site visits that the author of this research had attended.

The study selected concepts such as *sustainable development*, *rural livelihood* and *ecotourism* and traced their evolution and development. They were chosen based on recommendations derived from many workshops in tourism and environment in which the author had attended and participated. Being a planner and developer in the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR) has helped the author explore many of the proposals presented in international summits, conferences, forums and workshops in addition to publications and studies produced by concerned ministries, the CDR in addition to international organisation such as the UN, the WTO, the IUCN, the World Bank and the EU (see para 1.1). It also helped to find out programmes such as the LEADER (Liaison Entre Action pour le Développement des Economies Rurales), sustainable tourism charts and Agenda 21 which were applied in some national parks and rural areas (see Appendix 13).

The research selected “Yellowstone” and “Banff” case studies because they represent an example of some early attempts in North America to manage and develop rural areas that are rich in natural assets. Alternatively, the “Cévennes National Park” in France was chosen as a pilot case study for the following reasons: *Firstly*, the author’s familiarity with the site and the ease with which he could meet the employees and residents of the park to get information related to the park; *secondly*, it encounters many circumstances that of the Qadisha-Cedars case study has; and *finally*, it presents helpful procedures for data collection and problem answering.

For the selection of *Cévennes National Park* case study the following factors were considered:

- a) It is geographically, socially, culturally and administratively appropriate to the research and the researcher (France had a mandate on Lebanon from 1921 until 1945 and French missionaries were in Lebanon since the 14<sup>th</sup> century) (see Figure 1.1).



- b) Information and data were readily available.
- c) It helped refine the data collection plans with respect to both the content of the data and the procedure to be followed.
- d) It provided some conceptual clarification for the research which can help to answer the research question (Frankfort and Nachmias, 2002; Gillham, 2000; Neuman, 2003; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003a; 2003 b).

The “*Cévennes National Park*” is located in the southern rural regions of France. It is influenced by the Mediterranean Sea and possesses administrative and physical similarities to most of the rural regions of Lebanon and especially to the “Qadisha-Cedars” (see Figures 2.3; 2.4). Unlike many parks in Europe, the Cévennes is permanently inhabited by around 41,000 people who are living in it and rely on the advantages brought about by the Park for their long-term development. Even with a geographical location that is in relatively close proximity to the urban area, this Park has been able to preserve its rural and natural characteristics.

The IUCN classifies it as a cultural and a natural national park with a land-use structure composed of a central core “natural reserve” that is protected by a ministerial decree (see Figure 2.3). The Cévennes region has seen the outward migration of its work force toward the big industrial areas and cities. The depopulation has been quite significant. The resident population declined from 120,000 habitants in 1850 to less than 41,000 in 2000 (DATAR, 2001). This drop to one third of the population took place in only one century.

The Cévennes National Park is subject to a “strict protection implementation plan” set by the state and is classified by UNESCO as a World Biosphere Reserve. Since 1976 the authorities of the Park have consecutively and successively developed five *site management programmes* which have played a major role in reducing rural exodus to urban areas. The most recent programme was initiated in 1999 for the years 2000-2005. The Park claims that it applies a new concept for the protection of nature which involves all the local partners in the management of its natural resources (farmers, foresters, craftsman and officials). According to the management authorities, the management follows a

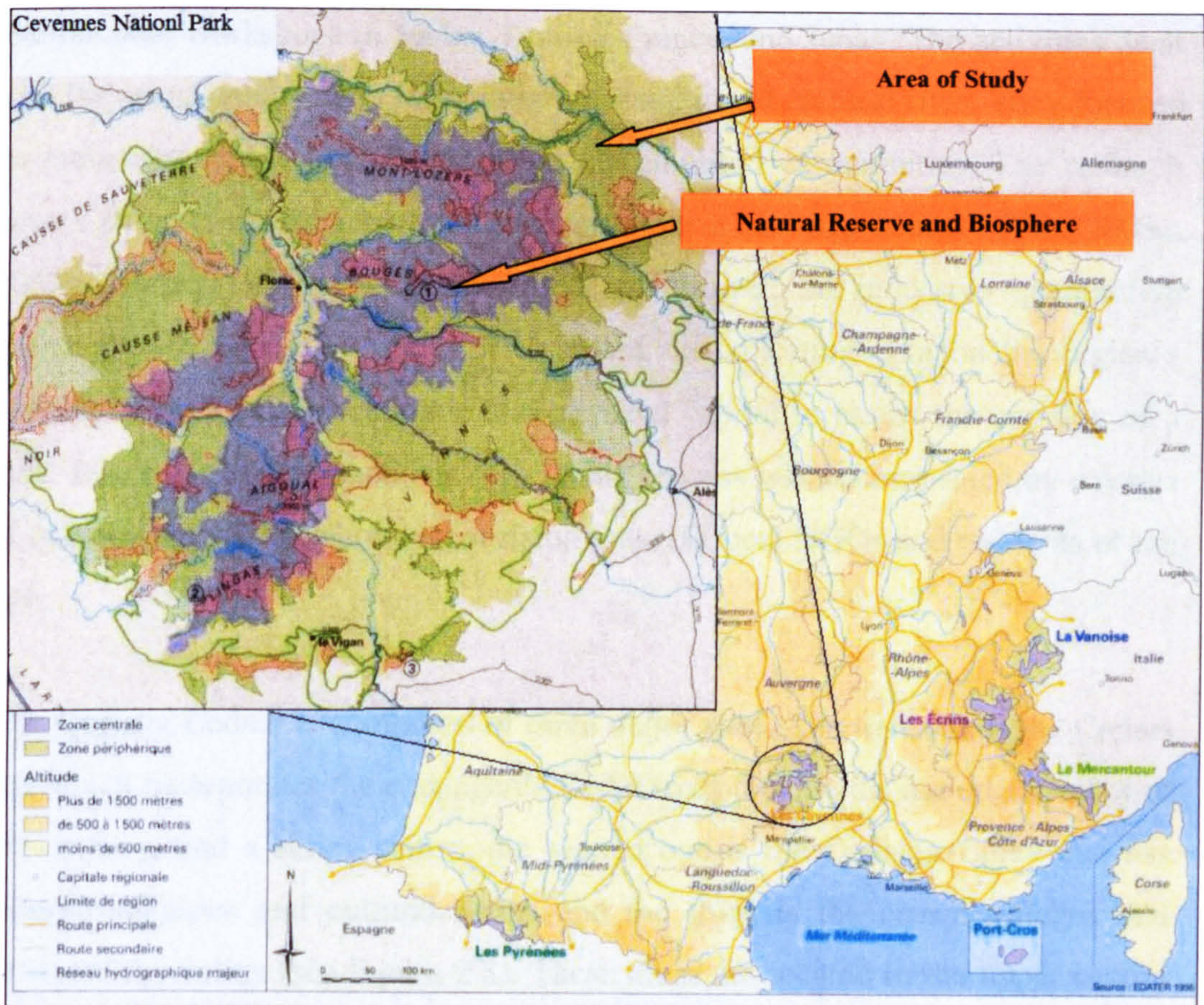
bottom-up approach that incorporates balance between man and nature (CNP, 2000; UNESCO, 1989). The Cévennes National Park case study questioned the value of Park's management policies and strategies. It created an insight into the development process of rural livelihood to be used as a set of guidelines for recommending the creation of national parks in Lebanon (Stake, 1994; 1995; Yin, 2003a). The finding resulted in producing a hypothetical *draft management framework* for the creation of national parks in Lebanon (Frankfort and Nachmias, 2002; Gillham, 2000; Manly, 1996).

Concerning data collection and analysis for the case studies, a “convergence of evidence” method was used (see Figure 2.1). For the “Cévennes National Park” this method was accompanied by face to face interviews with open-ended, semi-structured questions. A probe approach was used by the author to certain key employees of the Park to help clarify important aspect that are vital for the research like political interference in the management and conservation strategies of the Park. Being an employee of the CDR gave the author a chance to interview major local and regional administrators, professionals and key personnel of the park (see Appendices 1; 2; 3). This helped the author develop knowledge about the park's management.

The interviews were accompanied by an analytical research of major official technical documents, brochures and websites. The data was supplemented with information collected from field observation and informal conversations with local residents. Such information added a body of evidence and offered a chance to validate and triangulate the findings derived from analysing the concepts and management theories. The validation is not in one direction. It moves backwards and forwards (see Figure 2.5) (Babbie, 1998; Kalton, 1983; Neuman, 2003).



**Figure 2.2 The Cévennes National Park - a pilot case study in France**



Source: ATLAS, 2000

The research then returned to the area of study in Lebanon and selected the Qadisha-Cedars as a critical case study for the following reasons:

- a) The case study represents a typical socio-economic situation that most of the rural regions have.
- b) It captures the circumstances and the conditions that the majority of Lebanese rural regions have acquired.
- c) It possesses natural, cultural and recreational elements that most of the other natural rural reserves in Lebanon embrace.
- d) It meets the criteria for testing previously collected data, recommendations and guidelines. It also help to compare results (Yin, 2003a; 200b; Stake, 1995) (see Appendices 14; 15; 16; 17; 18; 19).



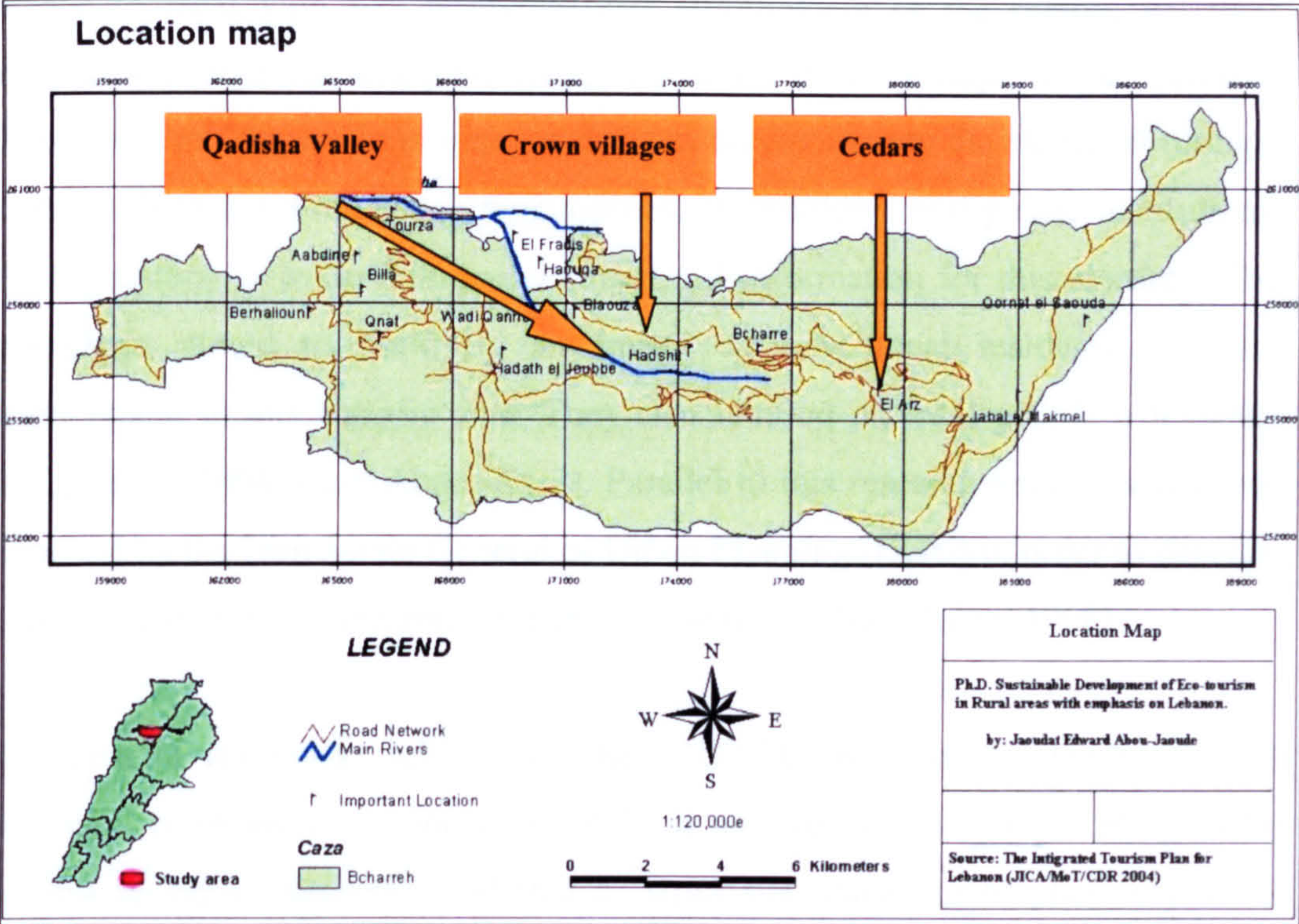
The selection of the case study was also based on the author's interaction with projects in the area, as well as on his recent participation in many local and international workshops in Malta, Tunisia, France, and Japan. The activities dealt with the management and conservation of natural and cultural sites. They focused on enhancing the living conditions in marginalised communities. The research covers some contemporary case studies within a real-life context (Yin, 2003a; 2003b; Stake, 1994; 1995). The process followed an inductive quantitative approach (see tables 2.2 and 2.3). It relied on collecting data on the region's natural, cultural, socio-economic and physical capital to assess the creation of a rural livelihood development strategy. This process was accompanied by a series of interviews with stakeholders, decision makers, local NGOs and residents of the site.

The Qadisha-Cedars is composed of three major sites. The first one is the Cedars site which incorporates the endangered Cedar trees that are the national symbol of the country, and a skiing centre; the second one is the Qadisha valley that has natural, religious and cultural assets and the third is the crown villages that surround the valley (see Figure 2.3). These areas are located in the upper central part of Mount Lebanon at an altitude that varies between 400 and 2000 meters above sea level in the north-eastern section of Lebanon. The total area of study is 3,000 hectares, and has a population of around 41,000 people. Like most of the rural regions in Lebanon the Qadisha-Cedars has faced massive out-migration to the urban coast. This phenomenon has a negative impact on the natural and cultural assets of the area that rendered them subject to negligence and abuse by the local population.

The Qadisha-Cedars area of study is listed on the UNESCO's Natural cultural world heritage list in 1998. Its physical capital was listed on the Official Lebanese List of Monuments. Three years ago and upon a request from UNESCO a committee for the conservation of the valley of the Qadisha was established. It incorporated representatives of the Maronite Patriarchate (major land owner in the valley), some of the local surrounding municipalities, the Directorate General of Antiquities, and some local NGOs.



Figure 2.3 The study area in the Caza of Bcharre in Lebanon



The committee for the conservation of the valley, in collaboration with the ministry of culture, has prepared a draft management plan for the conservation of the valley and the cedars. The management plan was poorly developed and did not take into account the financial and social needs of the local communities and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). As a result, the plan was discarded and a federation of seven municipalities that are directly concerned with the area of study was founded and named “The federation of municipalities of Bcharre” (Hayek, 2002; MoC, 1998). This federation of municipalities is actually trying to play the role of mediator between the major stakeholders of the Qadisha-Cedars region, and the local residents who oppose the conservation and protection requirements set by UNESCO, the Ministry of Environment (MoE) and the Directorate of Urban Planning (DGU) to protect the natural and cultural assets of the region.

The Qadisha-Cedars area was recently part of a research study launched by the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR), the Ministry of Tourism (MoT) and the Japanese International Corporation Agency (JICA). The aim of this study was to develop a National Tourism Plan for Lebanon. Being in charge of the



development and follow-up on this study from the CDR's side gave the author a chance to meet with key personnel and stakeholders of the region, get their respond and organize and participate in a series of workshops in the Qadisha-Cedars region. The sessions were set to focus on community development through tourism. They involved local communities, stakeholders and public institutions. These sessions were used as useful sources of information for this research. The workshops aimed to build up an image on how local residents visualise development in this specific area. They also focused on local people's demands (JICA *et al.*, 2004) (see, Appendix 2). Parallel to this research another study was launched by the Directorate General of Urban Planning (DGU) in order to develop a "restriction construction zoning map" for the region (Dar Taleb, 1998).

This area of study was selected by the UNESCO as a cultural landscape with important religious monuments in 1997<sup>6</sup>. It also requested that the Holy valley become a "nature reserve", and that a "strict site management plan" should be developed, implemented and managed by a committee that includes representatives from the Ministries of Tourism, Environment, Culture and Public work (DGA) (see Figure 7.9). Such multi-mandate of the region as religious, cultural, natural and recreational destination area could be both an advantage and a disadvantage depending on the way the management strategy of the Qadisha-Cedars is set. This area has been a source of attention from many investors who focus on short-term investments and whose strategies are not in conformity with major landowners of the Qadisha Cedars region, the national government represented by the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR), the Ministry of Environment (MoE) the Directorate of Urban Planning (DGU) and the UNESCO's objectives and aspirations. For that reason the research aimed to develop a solution that satisfies the government and UNESCO's objectives and does not discourage investment in the region (UNESCO, 1989).

### 2.2.3 Development of a draft model

In step 3 a "theoretical development and management model" was developed (see Appendices 5; 6; 7; 8). Why did the research choose to develop a model to help

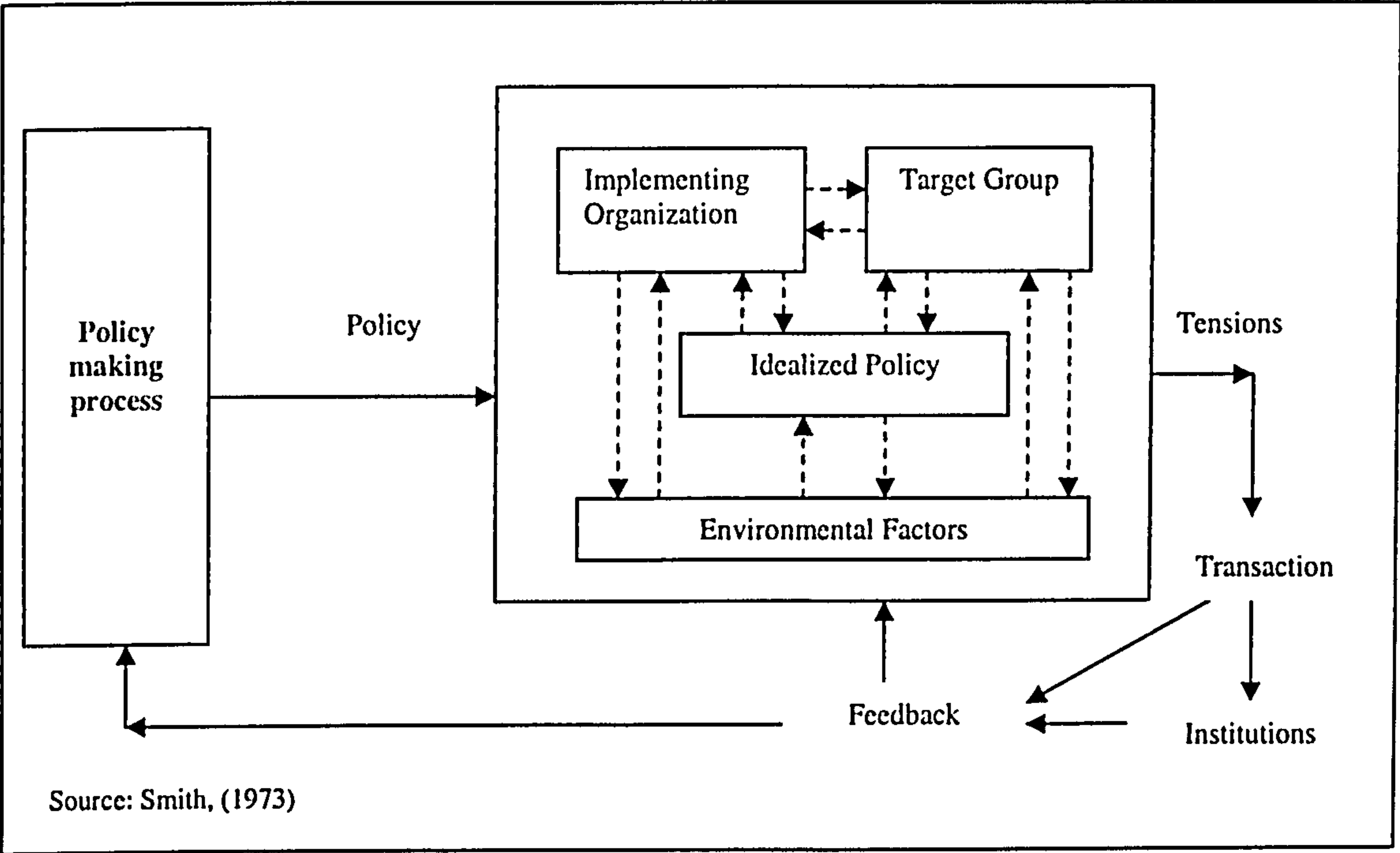
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<sup>6</sup>The Ministry of Culture and Higher education's order n° 13 of 22/3/1995 and n° 60 of 27/9/1997.



answer to the research’s question? According to Frankfort and Nachimas (2002) a Model in the social science is based on symbols and characteristics of some empirical phenomenon. Its components interrelate with correlated concepts for the purpose of ordering and simplifying views of reality. It is used to gain insight into a phenomenon that cannot be observed directly and to render abstract certain aspects of the implementation process. It estimates the consequences of various alternative courses of action that a proposed solution might select (Blalock, 1982; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002; c and Nachimas, 1992). In this context the research was inspired by an example developed by Smith (1973) to build up a model to help implement the scenario proposed to reduce rural depopulation in the Qadisha-Cedars (see Figure 2.4). The draft model that was developed by the research includes guidelines and recommendations set during the course of the research.

Figure 2.4 A Model Policy Implementation Process



### 2.2.4 Validation of the final results

**In step 4** the draft model was validated<sup>7</sup> by applying on it a scenario. The aim for the selected scenario was to help predict a future perspective and to explore the model’s capacity to answer the research question on how to reduce depopulation

<sup>7</sup> There are different aspects of validity such as cultural, ecological, social and economic (Bryman, 2001).

and protect the natural and cultural assets of rural areas (Bryman, 2001, Brannen *et al.*, 1992; Robson, 2000; Van der Heijden, 2002). The scenario was developed in chapter 8 and proposed some positive steps for the three regions of the Qadisha-Cedars. It took into account the recommendation derived from previous chapters i.e. the special characteristics, needs and requirements of the region as well as the carrying capacity (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002; Vander der Heijden, 2002; WBCSD 1997). The process used a mixed qualitative and quantitative method (Bryman, 1998; Creswell, 2003; Datta, 1997; Shackley 2001; Shaw and Gould, 2001) (see Tables 2.1; 2.2; 2.3). Finally, this study concluded its findings with a summation of cross-sectional and longitudinal evaluations of the results. It crystallized the output in the form of recommendations and a final model and highlighted the degree of success that could be achieved in answering the problem raised at the beginning of the research process.

## **2.3 Research Methods**

The inductive and deductive research methods were adopted in order to demonstrate familiarity with a related body of knowledge, establish credibility, show the path of prior research and how the current study is linked, integrate and summarize what is known into the research, and learns from the other studies and stimulate new ideas (Bryman, 1998; Datta, 1997; Gordon, 1980) (see Figure 2.5).

The inductive and deductive methods were applied while using (see Figure 2.5):

- 1- Literature and documentation review and analysis;
- 2- Direct observation; and
- 3- Interviews;

### **1-Literature and document review and analysis**

One of the major features of this research was to blend empirical evidence and concepts. For this purpose literature review and analysis were used to accumulate knowledge about the major questions that the research is raising (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Frankfort and Nachimas, 2002; Neuman, 2003; Richie, 2003; Yin, 1982). The research method investigated concepts and case studies. It tried to understand their inter-relationship and ability to address rural livelihood and site management in order to address the problem raised by the research (Babbie, 1998; Barnnen, 1992; Datta, 1997; Gillham, 2000).



Many types of reviews were made: a self-study review based on the author's participation in many local and international workshops, seminars and meetings related to the field of study; a historical review that traced the development of concepts and site management processes over time; a theoretical review that compared how different theories address the problem; and a methodological review which points out how methodology varies in the study. The literature and the documents were obtained from various libraries, technical reports, archives and other publications about Lebanon and other parts of the world mainly the USA, Canada, the UK and France. This information provided the guiding foundations for the development of a solution to the phenomenon raised by the research.

The information was collected from books, studies, websites reports, official documents, brochures and videos in France and in Lebanon. Some of the publications were collected from the ATEN, the ARADEL, the AURN, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Cévennes National Park in France, as well as from the Lebanese ministries of Tourism and Environment (MoT) and (MoE), Directorate General of Statistics (DGS), the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR) as well as from the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the UNDP, and other NGOs. Also, aerial photos and geographical maps were collected from the Lebanese Ministry of Defence, and Satellite pictures from The Centre for Remote Censing in Lebanon (CRC).

## **2-Direct observation**

Several site visits and visual field surveys were used to identify the existing conditions of the case studies "Cévennes National Park" in France and "Qadisha-Cedars" in Lebanon. They focused on the social, cultural, physical and the unique features of each sites. Equally, Photographs were taken to help convey their important characteristics.

For the "Cévennes National Park", several field visits were made to Bougés, Montlozér, Causse Méjean, Aigoual and to Florac which is the headquarters of the Park. In the "Qadisha-Cedars case" study, visual field surveys were carried out in the Qadisha valley, the crown villages and Cedars area to make an inventory



the natural, human, social, infrastructure and superstructure capital. It also covered social and economic status (living conditions poverty levels) as well as unique features and characteristics of the region. Photographs were also taken to highlight certain important issues (Czaja and Blair, 1996; Neuman, 2003; Yin 1982; 2003b) (see Appendices 1; 2; 3; 14; 15; 16; 17; 18).

### **3- Interviews**

A two week visit took place at the “Agence D’urbanise de la Region Nimienne” (AURN) in France. During this visit face to face interviews were held with: 1)-director of the Natural Park of the Camargue, 2)-assistant director of the Cévennes National Park, 3)-experts at the “Agence Technique Des Espaces Naturels” (ATEN) which is responsible for the development of the Park of Cévennes’ last 2000-2006 management programme, 4)-many of the Cévennes National Park’s experts, technical officers and some local residents. The interviews were multi-purposed and were driven by open ended question. The researcher used a “probe” approach to guide the interviewees and to assure proper answers and to elaborate on the incomplete responses (Neuman, 2003) (see Appendix 1). The interviews were designed to build up a body of knowledge about the region. This was done by using questions that focused on how the Cévennes Park was being developed and managed. It identified some of the requirements of the local communities as well as investigated the local resident’s ability to reach financial and social accomplishment. During these interviews the interviewees were given the chance to state their own ideas and priorities.

In the Qadisha-Cedars case study many interviews were conducted with the head of the committee for the preservation of the Valley of Qadisha, representatives of local clubs and organizations, environment activists, journalists, tour operators, travel agents and academia as well as administrative staff in the public institutions. A “bottom-up” approach was used where everyone’s opinion was taken into account, (Kvale, 1996; Neuman, 2003; Oppenheim, 1992). They all had a role in identifying the basic problems, needs and requirements for the region. These interviews were made through workshops and a general assembly of stakeholders, heads of municipalities and local NGOs and face to face interviews.



A major workshop took place at the headquarters of the Kaem Makam (vice governor of the Bcharre Caza) in Bcharre, and included most of the municipalities that surround the valley (Merton *et al.*, 1990; Morgan, 1998; Puchtta & Potter, 2004). The participants were to an extent, familiar with the region's needs and potential. The researcher acted as interviewer. The main objectives of this workshop were to identify visions, issues and priorities for the development of the region; spot local resources for economic activities; recognize the stakeholders at the municipality and the community levels and pinpoint their interest from a rural socio-economic perspective; identify the needs of the local communities; and highlight the municipalities' (local governments) administrative and social boundaries.

The general topics discussed involved accumulating sufficient information to build up a body of knowledge. It focused mainly on general socio-economic issues such as poverty; visions and plans of the socio development of the municipalities and communities; identification of the institutional, social, financial, industrial and commercial components and their proper use for sustainable rural development purposes; the contribution of the local administration and the tourism sector in the development of visions and plans; and the differentiation between the private and the public sector. Subjective comments were encouraged and taken into considerations (see Appendices 2; 3).

A general assembly was also held on the 9<sup>th</sup> of August 2003 at the old Maronite patriarchate in Diman "the summer residence of the Maronite Patriarch". The researcher participated as a representative of the CDR. The main purpose of this meeting was to discuss with the major stakeholders the problems that are facing the valley and its surrounding villages (Appendix 2).

In addition to that, face to face interviews took place with representatives from the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR), the Ministries of Tourism (MoT) and Environment (MoE), the Directorate of Antiquities (DGA), the Directorate of Urban Planning, UNESCO, UNDP, the Council of Municipalities of Bcharre, hotels and restaurants associations and some public and private investors. The main objective of the interviews was to identify resources,



problems and visions related to the Qadisha-Cedars (Oppenheim, 1992) (see Appendix 3). Face to face interviews were carried out with local residents.

The interviewees were selected randomly on a quota from a stratified sampling of the population in the area of study. The population in the area of study is divided into strata that represent different categories of the local society such as gender, age group and status: at least two women, at least two persons below the age of 30, at least two persons more than 30 years old and at least two employed individuals and one unemployed and one freelance (Babbie, 1998; Kalton, 1983; Neuman, 2003) (see Appendices 2; 3). They were all willing to participate. The main objectives were to get feedback on the locals thinking about their region's state and needs from a socio-economic, tourism, cultural, educational, health and services perspective.

The interviewer also questioned the impact of tourism on the region. The questions were developed based on a *qualitative method* in which a combination of *structured* and *open-ended* questions were asked allowing for a mixture of responses and giving the interviewees the freedom to reply and a chance to identify and express their opinions (Czaja and Blair, 1996; Gillham, 2000; Gordon, 1980; Kvale, 1996; Neuman, 2003; Wengraf, 1998; 2001; Yin, 2003b). Also, some representatives from local organizations who are mostly involved in the regions development were interviewed. Probes<sup>8</sup> were used when necessary to be sure that the interviewees understood the questions and to assure proper and valid answers (Neuman, 2003; Yin, 2003a). Confidentiality and anonymity were assured by the researcher but not requested by the participants and thus the results were fully transparent (see Appendices 1; 2). The interviews and workshops were followed by a categorisation, analysis and comparison process of all the data collected data. The results were collected, compared and analysed (Neuman, 2003; Yin, 1982). This extensive observation, investigation, analysis, description and explanation, led to the creation of a multi-dimensional picture of the area of study. It summed up the region's needs and helped to envisage and predict strategies for the development of the region.

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<sup>8</sup> Probe is a follow-up question or action that an interviewer applies during an interview to get clarification for an incomplete answer (Neuman, 2003).



## 2.4 Conclusion

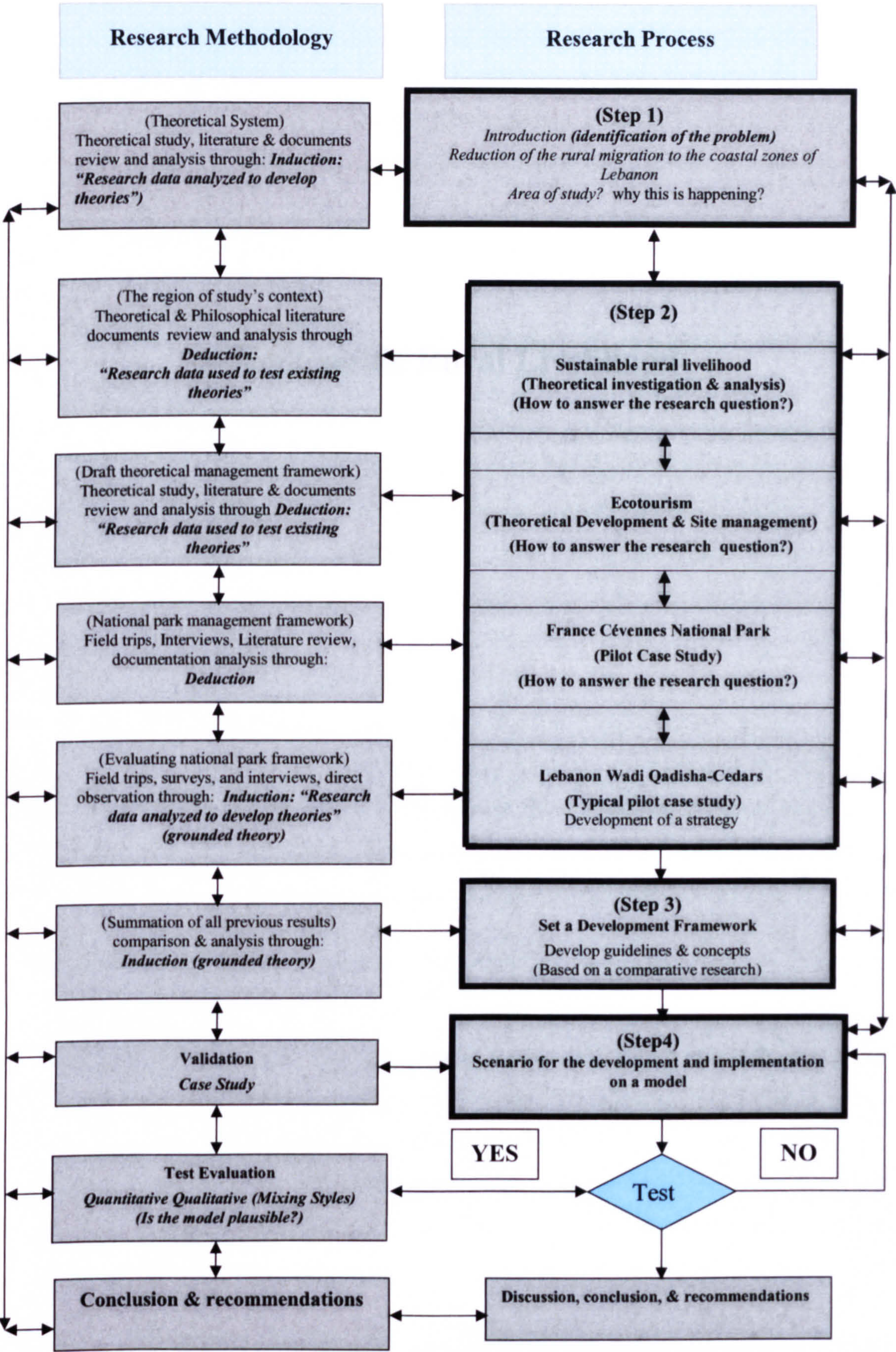
The author works for the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR) which is a major public institution in Lebanon that deals with planning and development on a macro level. This situation has exposed the author to the existence of rural depopulation which is causing damage to the natural and cultural resources in the countryside, and raised questions on how to reverse this phenomenon.

The study used an inductive approach that relied on the author's exposure to many local and international conferences and workshops in the fields of environment, tourism and rural development to answer this question. The research also did some literature review on Canada, USA, UK, France and Lebanon. Concepts like *sustainable development*, *rural livelihood* and *ecotourism* in addition to case studies like the *Cévennes National Park* and the *Qadisha-Cedars* were found basic tools to answer the research question.

The study used a deductive approach to analyse these concepts to develop confidence that these concepts, management and development theories are valid. Guided by the results deduced from these concepts together with a pilot case study, the research then used an induction approach on a national level to understand the natural, cultural and human potential of Lebanon to develop sustainable rural livelihood in the country. It then studied the Qadisha-Cedars region as a typical case study and explored the major problems that the area is facing, mainly depopulation. The study proposed a theoretical management framework to resolve the problem and concluded with a model. It then validated the output by applying a scenario (see Figure 2.5).



Figure 2.5 Frameworks for Research Process & Methodology





### **3 Sustainable Rural Livelihood**



### 3.1 Introduction

It is vital at an early stage of the study, to start the research by investigating what some major international concepts stand for such as *sustainable development* and *rural livelihood*, this helps with an understanding of the role these concepts have played in resolving major problems like *poverty*, *population pressures* and *damage to natural rural resources* (UNDP, 1997; UNECWS, 1980).

The chapter starts by exploring the causes of some of these problems, by building on previous international experience, and addressing major (causality) research questions such as: What threatens rural natural resources? Is it poverty, ignorance or negligence that is done by the local and/or national policy makers? Why are rural people migrating to the urban areas? Moreover, what are certain permanent long-term solutions to these problems? The chapter highlights certain international attempts launched through conferences in the last quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, to answer the research questions raised by many countries, and to propose solutions. The conferences addressed the causes of these problems, and highlighted the components that affect long-term rural development. They helped to define guidelines and indicators to follow. In addition, these conferences developed some basic policies and strategies that the stakeholders could follow to achieve sustainable rural livelihood. The chapter then moves to an analysis of the major components that constitute rural livelihood in an effort to understand the strengths and weaknesses of this concept. It then concludes with recommending a type of strategy to follow for an answer to the research question (Winter, 1996).

### 3.2 Toward World Conservation Strategies (WCS)

The last part of the twentieth century has seen a new trend in dealing with sustainable development. This was mainly done through the conservation of natural resources that started at the World Conservation Strategy (WCS) meeting in March 1980 (IUCN, 1980)<sup>9</sup>. Terms like sustainability were introduced while defining "conservation" as the "Management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of the future

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<sup>9</sup>It was prepared by the IUCN in collaboration with the UNEP, WWF, FAO and the UNESCO.



generations” IUCN (1980, s.1.6). The main purpose of the WCS conference was to prepare a strategy for “the conservation of the Earth’s living resources in the face of major international environmental problems”<sup>10</sup>. In other words, the term “sustainability” was linked with topics such as needs, benefit, preservation, aspirations, and management of the biosphere.

In the section entitled “Towards Sustainable Development”, this report identified “the main agents of habitat destruction” as *poverty, population pressures, social inequity* and *terms of trade* that work against the interests of the poor countries and gave a checklist of priority requirements and actions. It called for a new international development strategy aimed at redressing equities, achieving a more dynamic and stable world economy (To allow countries to participate more fully and more equitably), stimulating “accelerating” economic growth and countering the worst impacts of poverty (Reid 1995, p. 40).

The WCS pointed out that “conservation” is entirely compatible with the growing demand for development to achieve a wider distribution of benefits to the whole population, i.e., better nutrition, health, education, family welfare, fuller employment, greater income security and protection from environmental degradation. This, in return, makes full use of the people’s labour, capabilities, motivations and creativity, as well as developing a sensitive approach to cultural heritage *ibid.* (s.20.6).

The WCS report was mainly environment-oriented and showed an interest in global strategies, mainly the development for the conservation of natural resources (*ibid.* p., i). Its concern with population growth and its application to the concept of carrying capacity was taken from ecological theories, where the main emphasis was wildlife management rather than human capital (Reid, 1995). The report stated that in order to achieve economic development and an enjoyment of nature’s riches, man must come to terms with the reality of resource limitation and the carrying capacities of the ecosystem *ibid.* (p., i).

### 3.2.1 Discussion

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<sup>10</sup>Environmental problems that focus on deforestation, desertification, ecosystem degradation, destruction and extinction of species, loss of genetic diversity, loss of cropland, pollution, and soil erosion.



The WCS report failed to consider how factors such as social and economic forces, could lead to a better use of resources. It did not explore the potential of an integration of sustainable utilizations and need-based development (Redclif, 1994; 2000; Reid, 1995). In its proposal for a new international development strategy the report ignored social and political development. It did not discuss the political and economic changes needed if there were to be any prospect of progress towards either *cross-sectoral conservation* or *sustainable development*. It showed little awareness of the “ideology and conservation values” of nature and natural resources with respect to cultural and social views (Adams, 1990; Rao, 2000).

The WCD report suggested respecting major principles such as “halting population increase” and “evaluating carrying capacities”, without taking into consideration the political realities that are needed for such implementations. It ignored the rights of local people, and neglected the social and economic impacts that could create or impose constraints on their use of resources. It was as if disregarding the many political difficulties associated with negotiating improvements on a global scale. Many South American countries saw such proposal as an undemocratic attempt to impose on them solutions set by the North Americans (Ghabbour, 1992; Redclif, 1994).

The research concluded that the term “sustainability” was first used for the purpose of attaining “development”. This is done by eliminating *poverty*, *population pressures* and *social inequity* which are the major causes of habitat destruction. Sustainability covers environmental as well as social and economic development. So far no immediate solutions were suggested on how to achieve sustainable development and it was not till 1987 that an IUCN conference was held and proposed some solutions to reach sustainable development.

### **3.3 Strategies for Sustainable Development**

In 1987, and after the IUCN conference in Ottawa, the WCED published its report *Our Common Future* (the Brundtland Report). In this conference the UN General assembly asked the commission “to propose long-term environmental strategies for achieving sustainable development for the year 2000 and beyond” and hence formulate “a global agenda for change” (WCED, 1987, p.ix). The report defined



Sustainable Development as that which “meets *the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*” (WCED, 1987, p.43).

The report aimed at: reviving the quality of growth; meeting the essential need for jobs, food, energy, sanitation and water; ensuring sustainable population growth; conserving and enhancing the resource base; re-orient technology and manage risks; and merging the environment and economics in decision making (WCED, 1987.p49). For achieving "sustainability", the report proposed holistic planning and strategies that preserve essential ecological processes and protects both human heritage and biodiversity. It recommended development and productivity that can be sustainable over the long-term for future generations. It also favoured a better balance of fairness and opportunity between nations.

For reaching "development" goals, the report listed *political, economic, social, administrative and production* requirements that should be met. The *political system* should secure effective citizen participation in decision-making; The *economic system* must be able to generate surpluses and technical knowledge on a self-reliant and sustainable basis; The *social system* has to provide solutions for the tensions arising from disharmonious development; The *production system* must respect the obligation to preserve the ecological basis for development; The technological system should search for new solutions; The *administrative system* must be flexible and have the capacity for self-correction; and the international solution system should foster sustainable patterns of trade and finance (WCED, 1987, p.65).

These requests were founded on a set of assumptions that were based on the usage of environmental policies as effective tools for the alleviation of world poverty, as well as considering trade liberation as a means of eliminating economic barriers for the achievement of sustainable development (IIED, 2000). The concept of sustainable development provided a challenge to the people and governments. The scope of this challenge must be met in order for economic activities to become environmentally sustainable.



### 3.3.1 Discussion

Ekins (1992) argued that to achieve sustainable development certain conditions need to be rigorously adhered to, mainly *proper natural resource use, pollution control* and *environmental impacts*. They can be summarized as the prevention of destabilization of global environmental features such as climate patterns and the ozone layer; protection of the ecosystems and ecological features to assure biological diversity; maintenance of the renewable resources through sustainable harvesting measures that are rigorously enforced; depletion of non-renewable resources on the basis of maintaining minimum life expectancies of such resources and technological innovations; and control of life-damaging events and risks coming from human activity.

On one hand, there were those who consider the “ecological criteria” as the most important element in sustainable thinking, and on the other, those who view “human progress” as of most value (Rao, 2000). Pearce *et al.* (1989) indicated that the latter concentrates more on the continuity of development and maximizations of economic benefits within a sustainable context. To Jacobs (1987) and Brown (1994) sustainable development embraces contradictory characteristics. It offers economic growth and yet causes environmental degradation. However, Redclif (1987) argued that the very strength of the “sustainable development concept” lies in its relative vagueness. Nevertheless, its contradictory goals of continued economic growth and ecological and societal stability and sustainability might never be fulfilled. In any case this concept of sustainable development has provided a focal point and a core around which different stakeholders can exchange ideas.

### 3.3.2 Agenda 21 an action plan for sustainable development

At the beginning of 1992, the largest international conference ever held took place in Rio De Janeiro, Brazil by request of the UN General Assembly. It was called the “Earth Summit” and was described as “an elaborate programming tool that could set the planet on a new course towards global sustainable development” (Johnson, 1993, p.3). This summit touched on outlining priority issues for the



twenty-first century such as the climate change, biodiversity and deforestation as well as the strengthening of international institutions, especially the UN, in order to follow up and facilitate the achievement of these aims.

As an output, a global action plan called *Agenda 21* was developed. Its aim was to achieve sustainable development. It included details of both the finance and technology transfer requirements for implementation, and institutional arrangements for overseeing the process. The Agenda 21 action program on Environment and Development was divided into four main sections: 1)-Socio-economic development; 2)-Conservation and management of resources for development; 3)-Strengthening the role of major groups involved in achieving sustainable development; 4)-and Means of implementation<sup>11</sup>. Several themes were given major emphasis, mainly socio-economic development, equity between the poor and the rich, integration of environment in the development, and the role of the local and national governments in capacity building and in promoting sustainable development.

Each of the 150 governments that participated in the convention was asked to prepare a national strategy for sustainable development that builds on its existing policy. The strategy should incorporate development and environment policies at all levels of the government and in all sectors and build up management systems for implementing these recommendations. In addition, the governments should aim at creating national consensus. In terms of *capacity building*, this can be done in a number of ways, such as developing human resources, strengthening the capacities of existing institutions in research and development and program implementation, as well as coordinating reviews of sector needs in the light of national strategies. Governments were asked to include reviews of their needs for capacity building in their national sustainable development strategies.

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<sup>11</sup>*Section one*-Social and development (chapters 1-8); *Section two*-The conservation and management of resources for development (chapters 9-22); *Section three*-Strengthening the role of major groups involved in achieving sustainable development (chapter 23-32); and *Section 4*-Means of implementation (chapter 33-40).



### 3.3.3 Commission on Sustainable Development

Agenda 21 placed strong emphasis on people and on their communities and organizations (including NGOs) in an approach which can be described as a “bottom-up” process where sustainable development not only concerns governments, it also involves local people. Effective planning is evolved through the participatory process, allowing different social groups to debate the gains and losses in the development process.

There was an agreement in the Climate Change<sup>12</sup> Convention to monitor the progress of reducing emissions, set up a CSD (Commission on Sustainable Development) and implement Agenda 21 (Rao, 2000). The Agenda 21 action plan considered social and economic development, conservation and management of resources, and strengthening the role of the major groups involved (especially the communities and the NGOs) as major factor to attain sustainable development. It focused on the role of the government in promoting and developing a strategy for sustainable development. It also recommended “capacity building” that can be achieved by developing the abilities of institutions to manage the various changes and activities required of them. The overall intention however, was not to weaken the issue of sustainable development. On the contrary, the negotiators wanted to ensure that the integrated environment issues should form a central part of the UN’s agenda over the forthcoming years.

The UN Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) that was created by the General Assembly in December 1992 began its work in 1993. It developed a set of outlines for the implementation of Agenda 21. In 1994, the CSD started its work by discussing major issues such as health, human settlements, freshwater resources, solid waste and sewage, and toxic chemical-hazardous waste (including radioactive). In 1995, it discussed land (including forestry and biodiversity) poverty, population, and indicators of sustainability. In 1996, it discussed climate change, air pollution, and oceans and trade. In April 2000, the CSD in its meetings recommended the need to take practical and appropriate decisions, renew political commitments, support sustainable development through the local governments,

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<sup>12</sup> The Frame Convention is signed by over 150 nations including Lebanon and became effective in Lebanon in 1994.



institutions and civil societies and NGOs. It also recommended the development of a framework that monitored the actual progress of implementing Agenda 21, highlighted new challenges and focused on the global and national Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002).

The United Nations adopted a working list of sustainable development indicators. They were developed under four major categories: social, environmental, economic and institutional as dictated by the Earth Summit Rio Plus Five (ESRPF) in 1997. The social category covered issues such as combating poverty, demographic dynamics, promoting education, protecting and promoting human health and promoting sustainable human settlement development. The economic category covered indicators related to changing consumption patterns and financing resources and mechanisms. The environmental category covered indicators such as promoting sustainable agriculture and rural development, combating deforestation, conservation of biological diversity, protection of the atmosphere and environmentally sound management biotechnology. Finally the institutional category covered indicators like science for sustainable development, information for decision making, and strengthening the role of the major groups (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002; Rao, 2000).

The CSD tried to stimulate discussions about these indicators, but there was a problem in reaching a consensus. This was partly due to the number of international agencies involved<sup>13</sup>, the different approaches developed and the lack of openness in some of them to other groups (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002). By the time of the Earth Summit Rio Plus Five (ESRPF) in 1997, a set of 132 indicators were proposed for further discussion and implementation at the national level. They were selected based on three major criteria which were the driving force, the state and the response<sup>14</sup>. Most of these indicators were already known and many do not relate directly to sustainable development<sup>15</sup> (Bell & Morse, 2000).

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<sup>13</sup>A range of organizations made attempts. These included multilateral bodies such as the United Nations Statistical Office (UNSTAT) and several UN agencies (FAO, UNICEF, WHO, UNEP and UNDP) as well as the World Bank. It also included regional agencies such as the United Nation Commission for Europe (UNECE) and Africa (UNECA) and the Asian Development Bank as well as several national governments (the Netherlands, Canada, Norway, Denmark and the USA) and various NGOs (Dalal-Clayton. 2002, PP140).

<sup>14</sup> The UN has replaced the terms control, pressure or process SIs with the term driving force. Ref: chapters of the Agenda 21 document (Rio De Janeiro, June, 1992).

<sup>15</sup> Indicators such as exports, imports, Official Development Assistance (Rao .P.K. 2000, PP 224)



In an attempt to simplify the process of implementing Sustainable Indicators (SIs) Harger and Meyer (1996) narrowed the characteristics of the Sustainable Indicators (SIs) into six which are:

- Simplicity;
- Scope (diversity that covers the environmental, social and economic );
- Quantification: the SIs should be measurable;
- Assessment: the SIs should allow trends with time to be determined;
- Sensitivity: the SIs should be sensitive to change; and
- Timeliness: the SIs should allow timely identification of the trend.

Alternatively Rennings and Wiggering (1997) suggest that the SIs should reflect three management rules which are:

- A harvest rate of renewable resources that does not exceed the regeneration rate;
- Waste emissions that should not exceed the relevant capacities of ecosystems; and
- Non-renewable resources that should be exploited in a quasi-sustainable manner by limiting their rate of depletion to the rate of creating renewable substitutes.

### **3.4 Discussion**

The attempts that were listed above show how difficult it is to make qualitative criteria measurable. They confirmed the need for developing a clear definition for each sustainable indicator, and the obligation to take into consideration the characteristics of the area on which they are to be implemented (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002). Many ESRPF participants favoured adopting indicators because they were considered a source of information and a judging tool on each country's standard, progress and success in implementing sustainable policies.

There were disagreements over what SIs to use, their nature and characteristics. There were also difficulties ensuring to some participants reliability, relevance and applicability of indicators. So far not many countries have started implementing the SIs (Bell & Morse, 2000; Roa, 2000). The process for the selection, development and implementation of SIs in a country is of major



importance. It must follow a bottom-up approach and should engage local people mainly stakeholders, NGOs, and academia who know to a great extent the characteristics of their country (Cairns *et al.*, 1993; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002).

Achieving a level of understanding in selecting SIs on a national level means resolving conflicts of interest that could occur between the private and public institutions with respect to sensitive issues such as environment, industry, trade and standard of living. While selecting indicators by the public institutions without the participation of other concerned parties such as academia, NGOs and CBOs could be incomplete and misleading. It can give distorted results about the actual status of the country's industry, economy and tourism, as well as other sectors (Andrew, 1993; Bell & Morse, 2000; Holden, 2001).

The research believes that Sustainable Development is achieved through "conservation" of the world's natural capital stock. The best way to achieve conservation is done by eliminating poverty and properly managing the world's natural capital. Management can take different forms; the best being sustainable strategies that are based on Environmental Impact (EIA) and Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) principles which are discussed in chapters 4 and 8 (see Figures 4.1; 8.1; 8.8; 8.10 and Appendix 19). These strategies can be investigated on national parks such as the Cévennes and Natural Reserves like the Qadisha-Cedars and their sustainability is assessed through Sustainable Indicators (SIs) that are appropriately selected and applied while using a bottom-up approach that involves the local stakeholders like local governments (municipalities), CBOs and NGOs.

Equally, international organisations such as the UN and the WB acknowledge that rural livelihood encompasses social inequity and poverty which are major causes of rural depopulation and a reason for the misuse of its natural resources (UNDP, 2003a; World bank, 1990a; 1990b; 1992; 1997; 2003). Despite urbanization, many poor families still live in rural areas. They depend on agriculture or other resources for their inadequate livelihood. In this respect rural livelihood has proven to be one of the major fields that require Sustainable Development (IBRD, 1997; IUCN *et al.*, 1991; UNDP, 1997). It is essential at this stage of the study to



comprehend rural livelihood in order to answer the research question on how to reduce rural depopulation and halt the misuse of natural resources.

### 3.5 Sustainable Rural Livelihood framework

Leones and Fieldman (1998) define rural livelihood as: *The earnings of an individual or a household living in the countryside*. The UK Department for International Development (DFID) in its White Paper on International Development has defined Sustainable Livelihoods as: *'A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base'* (Carney, 1998).

#### 3.5.1 Basis for rural livelihood policy

The rural livelihood policy analysis relies on understanding the following components: 1-Assets; 2-Activities and 3-Context. These elements help in producing framework to reach a sustainable rural livelihood. It can also develop a policy that renders rural livelihood capable of resisting shocks and stresses. This policy has to sustain and enhance assets, now and in the future, without over-exploitation of the natural resource bases. Equally it should face the problem of rural exodus to the urban areas (see Figure 3.1).

##### 1- Assets and/or resources

Assets and/or resources are divided into five types: *Natural, Human, Social, Financial and Physical capital* (Carney, 1998, Scoones, 1998; Flora and Fey, 2004) (see Figure 3.1 and Appendix 4).

1.1. *Natural capital* comprises land, water, trees, animals as well as biological resources (Flora and Fey, 2004);

1.2. *Human capital* is defined as the labour available to the household in the market. It includes skills, knowledge and health needed to pursue different livelihood strategies. (Carney, 1998);

1.3. *Social capital* is defined by Moser, (1998) as the "reciprocity within communities and between households based on trust deriving from social

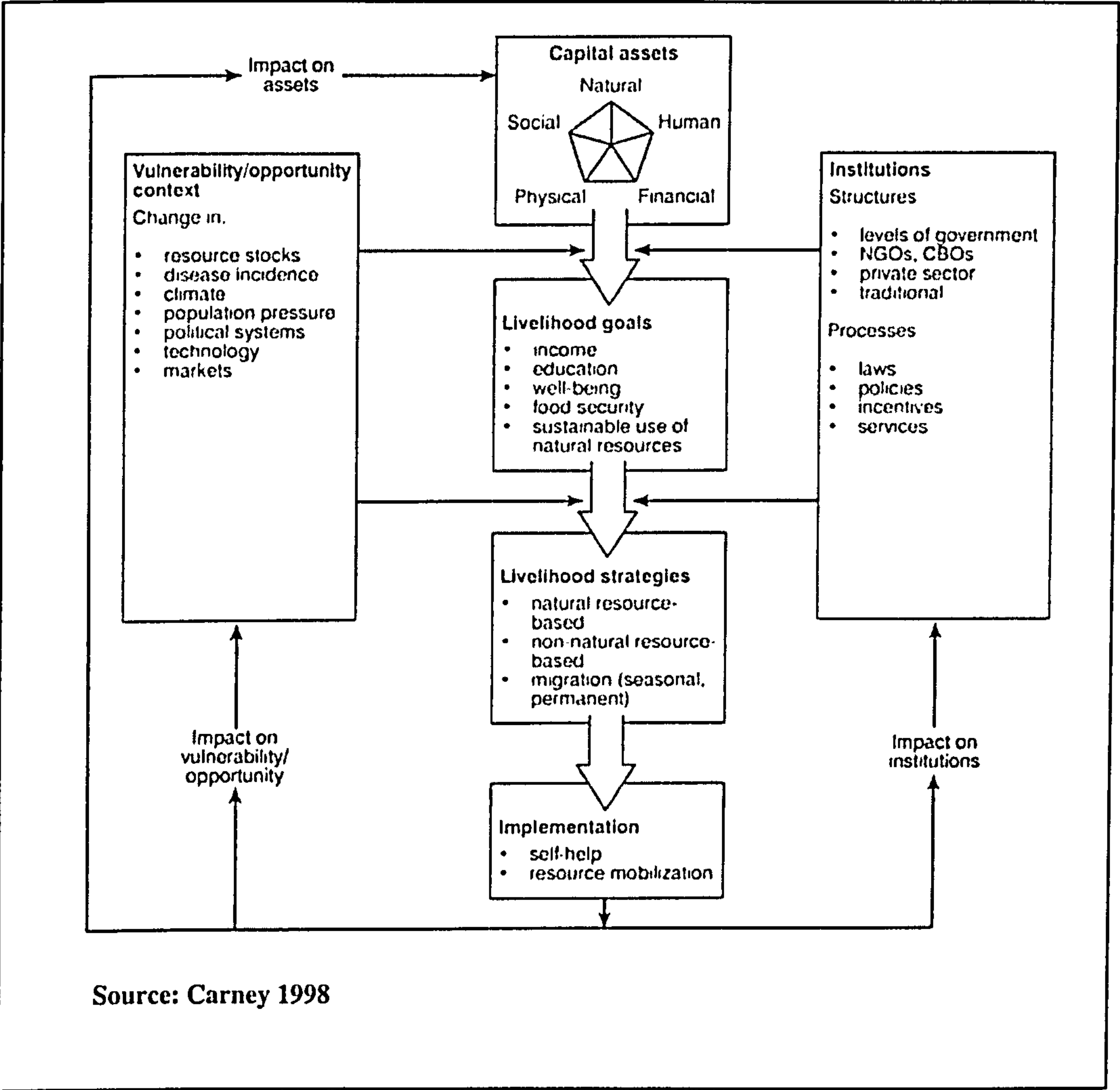


ties”. Such definition places emphasis on localized reciprocity within communities.

1.4. *Financial capital* refers to the assets, savings, loans and other financial credits to which a household has access (Coleman, 1990; Putnam *et al.*, 1993).

1.5. *Physical capital* is the infrastructure (transport, shelter, water, energy and communication) and the production of equipment which enable people to pursue their livelihoods (Carney, 1998) (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 Rural livelihood framework



3.5.2 Discussion

For the protection and the development of the human, social, natural and financial capitals, the IUCN (1997) proposed the implementation of a series of *political, social and economic systems* to assure proper natural resources management of these assets. It requested effective citizen participation in decision making. It also



called for solutions to overcome the tensions arising from disharmonious development (see para. 3.3.1). But the mechanism for implementation and monitoring of these systems is still ambiguous. This arose because many of the decision makers who have the first say in implementing these systems have different goals and insights from those who are directly concerned. A participatory approach between both parties in this respect is needed.

Degnbol (1996) highlighted the governments' commitments toward a "bottom-up paradigm" of development had been conducted without any meaningful reforms of the power relations between governments and local communities. He pointed out that it is possibly naïve to expect governments to redefine their roles and that genuine participation will only come about with the emergence of strong and representative civil societies. The dilemma that the national authority faces is that it needs community agreement and support to make the decisions sustainable. At the same time, it fears the involvement of civil societies which can be less comfortable, less predictable and might slow down the decision makers' implementation process (Crewe, 2001; Pretty, 1997). In this respect there is much to be done in order to move these political, social and economic systems into a practical, applicable framework stage where action on the ground is possible (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Shepherd, 1998).

## 2-Activities

*Activities* are classified into two categories: the *natural based resource activities* and the *non-natural based resource activities*. The *natural based resource activities* comprise food cultivation and non-food cultivation from woodlands and forests. It is also involved with livestock keeping as well as non-farm activities such as brick making, weaving, thatching and other services that are nature or adventure based, such as tourism and eco-tourism (Blarel *et al.*, 1992; Burr, 1995; IBRD, 1997). The *non-natural resources based activities* include rural trade<sup>16</sup> (Bramwell, 1993; Chambers, 1989). These activities have a crucial impact on sustainability, depending on the way they are used and managed. As recommended by the IUNC, the natural based strategies that rely on renewable

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<sup>16</sup> Marketing of farm outputs, inputs, consumer goods and artifacts, it also includes other rural tourism services such as hotels, motels.



sources should assure proper sustainable harvesting methods that are rigorously enforced. The ones who rely on non-renewable resource should efficiently consume these resources (IUCN, 1980).

### 3- Context

The rural livelihood context adheres to *governance*, *social* and *economic* factors. It performs on two levels, *the local* and *the national* (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Moseley, 2003; Pierre, 2000). The *local level* is mainly based on endogenous factors that incorporate local history, economics, environment (climate, biodiversity, agro-ecology), demography and social relation and differentiation (gender, ethnicity, class) as well as certain characteristics of the region. It also includes municipalities (local governments), community groups, NGOs and land tenures. The *national level* includes national government agencies, organizations, institutions in addition to macro political economic policies, trends and technological changes. It relies mainly on exogenous factors of economic and political tendencies and unforeseen national and international shocks such as drought, floods, pests, diseases, oil crises, civil wars and terrorism acts.

According to Dalal-Clayton and Stephan (2002) rural livelihood development must be dealt with through “governance systems” at local, national and global levels. It should be based on social, environmental and economic priorities in addition to planned investment, production and consumption principles. The architecture and operation of governance systems differs between countries (Ginther *et al.*, 1995). Governance designates a course of action or method by which a society is governed. It reflects the structures and processes of regionalization and decentralization and builds on previously informal interactions between government and other actors (Pierre, 2000; Rhodes 1997).

The World Bank (1997) defines *Governance* as “the process of exercising authority in the name of constituency, together with the selection and the replacement of those who exercise it”, and *Public Governance* as “the authority relationship between the government and the people”. Governance performs well if implemented while safeguarding the dignity, integrity, rights, and needs of every one within the nation. It relies on an *inclusive* process that is based on equal



participation and equal treatment and *accountability* that is transparent and contestable. On a long-term basis there is a positive fundamental relation between better governance and better rural development (World Bank, 2003).

A governance process underlies a macro policy that influences variables such as *exchange rate, level of interest rate and pattern of taxation, government budget, and size of the country's debt burden*. It also has a wide impact on the place and direction of economic and social changes (World Bank, 1997, 2003). Governance includes economic activities between the state and the private agencies, the role of the markets, the degree of centralization of the state power, the accountability of state agencies, and adherence to the rules and laws. When macro policies are adverse to rural livelihood, poverty and inequality grow, risk increases and the vulnerability of rural families to stress and adversity rises (World Bank, 1990a, 1990b, 1994). Much of the debate in the last fifteen years regarding macro policies is about whether the conventional macro policies advocated by the World Bank and other international organisations are inimical or encouraging to rural development and livelihoods (Cornia and Heillener, 1994; Winter, 1996; World Bank, 2003).

Macro policy provides an encouraging environment for rural development to happen by lowering risks, stimulating flexibility, widening options, and reducing vulnerability. This can be achieved through: *stabilization, adjustment, and reform*;

3.1 *Stabilization* takes action to decrease a balance of payment deficit, reduce government budget deficit, and lessen the rate of inflation by periodic squeezes on purchasing power in order to control the rate of inflation (Helleiner, 1994).

3.2 *Adjustment* adopts policies to improve resource allocation, increase economic efficiency, expand growth potential, and enhance the resilience of the economy to shocks (World Bank, 1990a; 2003). It involves institutional change (e.g. privatization of state enterprises), as well as price liberalization and investment in infrastructure and service sectors mainly tourism and ecotourism.

3.3 *Reform* on the other hand makes governance and economy more responsive, flexible, efficient, and effective. It addresses wider organizational,



administrative and political issues, such as the effectiveness and size of the civil service, the public accountability of state agencies and a good public management, tax reform, transparency, fairness, political pluralism. Some analysts would include factors such as multi-party democracy, political and social plurality, decentralization of decision-making, and freedom of the press in the reform process (Engberg-Pedersen *et al.*, 1996; World Bank, 2003).

### 3.5.2 Discussion

All economies need to adjust or adapt to changing circumstances in order to achieve a reasonable rate of development. The more rigid the economic processes and structures of a country, the less they are able to cope with the change. Therefore, a primary objective of reform is to strengthen the ability of the economy to recover from stress and shocks that can be produced by rural migration (Streeten, 1989). Many economists consider that the market economy offers a higher degree of flexibility and adaptability, than an economy in which the state or government is heavily involved in day-to-day economic decision-making. This is because the market economy has a built-in responsiveness to the short and long run price changes by the private producers, whereas state agencies tend to be much less responsive in that way.

For the research “governance” plays a major role in developing an economy in the rural areas that is able to cope with the changes and shocks- mainly depopulation. It is an important actor in terms of *Stabilization, Adjustment, and Reform*. According to the research, serious reservations should surround the mode of operation of a government which should take into consideration waste and inefficiency. In this respect, a government should prepare national and local strategies that embrace development and rural policies in all sectors mainly the productive ones like tourism and ecotourism. It should also develop management systems that are able to execute these strategies. In addition, the national government should aim at building national consensus and devise ways for “capacity building” such as developing “human resources” and strengthening the capacities of existing national and regional institutions. Rural livelihood development should not only be the concern of governments, it should also include the people. The government should follow an approach that can be



described as a “bottom-up” process where the local people, communities and organizations (including NGOs and CBOs) have an effective participatory role in decision-making, planning and implementation of rural development.

### **3.6 Rural Livelihood strategies**

The environment is considered a major factor in the development of a strategy for a region. It incorporates natural based resources such as land, water and vegetation which can be utilized to provide means of survival for the rural populations. There is a direct relationship between the state of the environment in rural areas, the social conditions, the standard of living, the level of poverty and rate of out-migration to the urban areas (European commission, 2003; UNDP, 2003). Environmental degradation such as soil erosion, over-grazed pastures, and loss of watershed protection have been further accentuated by poverty with local groups over-exploiting the natural resources. Families that are on the brink of destitution are led to consume the capital that could form the basis for long-term survival (UNDP, 1997).

Land ownership has implications for the environment. The poor tend to move into areas where legal and customary property institutions are inoperative in order to freely access the natural resources. This attempt to survive generates an unsustainable use of resources (IUCN *et al.*, 1991; UNDP, 1997). The lack of a lasting profit policy to the natural assets of the area generates a short-term approach rather than long-term investment strategies (IBRD, 1997, Shepherd, 1998). There is great concern by the World Bank about unbalanced natural ecosystems, loss of biodiversity and large-scale deforestation. These factors have a direct impact on the natural resources and are mainly caused by poverty and out-migration (World Bank, 1997). The damage to the local environment cannot be effectively halted unless rural livelihood issues are properly addressed. This should be done in a way that focuses mainly on sustainable livelihood through long-term strategies (IBRD, 1997; World Bank, 1991; 1996).

#### **3.6.1 Factors that affect the creation of a rural strategy**

As previously discussed rural livelihood relies on means that are based on natural and non-natural resources to generate income for a household to survive. These means require strategies that are developed in response to social needs and shocks.



These strategies are of a dynamic nature, and adjust according to pressures and opportunities and act accordingly (see Figure 3.1) (Dalal-Clayton, *et al.*, 2003; flora *et al.*, 2004; IUCN *et al.*, 1991; Shepherd, 1998; UNDP, 1997; 2003; World Bank, 1990; 1991; 1992; 1997). There are some major factors that directly affect the development and the implementation of a livelihood strategy particularly in rural areas. The most important of these factors are *risk, vulnerability, labour, credit markets and seasonality* (Alderman and Paxson, 1992; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Ellis, 2000; Flora *et al.*, 2004).

1. *Risk* has a direct impact on the development of a livelihood strategy. In rural areas social households try to vary their type of activities in order to foresee, adapt and cope with the threats that encounter them (Alderman and Paxson, 1992). The higher the perceived risk attached to a particular source of income, the more likely it is that the individual or the household seek to compensate for this by having in place other income sources. In general, income diversification is often taken to imply a trade-off between a higher total income involving higher risk of income failure, and a lower total income involving lower risk of income failure (Walker and Ryan, 1990; Blarel *et al.*, 1992). It is customary in regions with a high risk factor that families establish strong links between their urban and rural branches whereby the urban branches of the family financially support their rural relatives in the time of need, as in the case in developing countries like Lebanon (Berry, 1993; Labaki, 1986). In practice, risk and seasonality are closely related. Conceptually it is useful to separate between risk and seasonality since different opportunities in different seasonal labour markets does not have the same degree of risk.
2. *Vulnerability* is another factor that affects the development of a rural livelihood strategy. It is defined as a high degree of exposure to risks, shocks and stress as a response to food or job insecurity (Chambers, 1989; Davies *et al.*, 1997). It threatens livelihood security social status due to features such as climate, sudden disaster, market and economic risk factors. (Chambers, 1983).
3. *The labour markets* can have direct implications on the development of rural strategies particularly out-migration. High rural labour demand happens as a



result of a need for external permanent or seasonal labour forces for farm work or other related activities. If there is no market even for the local population household, members must search for active labour markets. This search for distant work opportunity results in semi-permanent or permanent migration (Basu, 1994).

4. *Seasonality* is a major reason for developing a strategy since it characterizes inconsistency in revenue to the household and relies mainly on on-farm, and off-farm activities. The *on-farm activities* are characterized by periods of peak labour, for example, cultivation and harvesting, which generate good farm output and high revenue, and other periods of little activity and low profits. The same could be applied to off-farm activities that are related to farm activities such as storage, packaging and distribution of grain and tree crop (Alderman and Sahn, 1989). There are *off-farm activities* such as art and craft production, exhibitions, sports, ecotourism and hostelry services. These should be developed to become an all year long generator of income. In this respect, a *rural resource management plan* that introduces off-farm activities that are of long-term basis, such as art and crafts, ecotourism, and other light industry activities, for example, wine, and apple cider production offer an all year agricultural productivity as well as other income generating activities.
5. *Credit market* can affect rural strategy development depending on the supply of funds that they offer to households. It is reflected in cash inputs into any type of production or service. It also helps in purchasing capital equipment and real estate. The credit market has long been regarded as one of the critical constraints inhibiting development in small farm agriculture, rural lodges, restaurants and arts and craft shops. The severity of this constraint is typically thought to reside in the poor functioning of rural financial markets in developing countries (Hoff *et al.*, 1993). There are many reasons for this market to fail, the most important of which is the high costs of setting up banking operations in rural areas, the difficulty and cost of securing adequate information on potential borrowers, the risk of default on loans, and the absence of collateral. Governments and NGOs have for decades tried to overcome market failures but their success at doing so has tended to be



intermittent. Market failure is a main motive in diversifying rural livelihood sources of income (Reardon, 1997). The aim of this strategy is to generate revenue from sectors other than agriculture. A diversification strategy has the potential of introducing small scale tourism and ecotourism activities such as rural lodges, restaurants, coffee and arts and craft shops. These activities do not require investing large amounts of money or paying high rates of interest since they tend to have a lower risk of income failure (Blarel *et al.*, 1992; Basu, 1994).

### 3.6.2 Strategies to cope with rural needs

Livelihood strategies of individuals and households join the macro and micro policies. In order to cope with the various factors like risk, vulnerability, labour market, credit market, and seasonality a variety of strategies are raised which are *Migration; agricultural intensification; and diversification* (Carney, 1998; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Richards, 2000).

- 1- *Migration strategy* is when one or more members of the family leave the household for a considerable amount of time to enhance the financial status of the household (Stark, 1991). It is based on the transfer of funds as a particular strategy adopted by members of rural households (Stark, 1991; Lageman, 1989). There are different types of migrations that can take place: *seasonal, circular, permanent and international migrations*. *Seasonal migration* refers to temporary migration that occurs in response to the agricultural seasons (Bremner, 1996). *Circular migration* is associated with temporary migration that is not necessarily tied to seasonal factors in agriculture. It can be for varying durations dictated by cyclical needs for labour in non-farm labour markets. In such migration, the migrants routinely return to their rural home and regard that as their principal place of domicile. They never set up permanent arrangements in the places where they work (Lageman, 1989). *Permanent migration* (rural-urban) implies that some of the rural family members make a long-term move to a different location, typically an urban area, and set up home there. This contribution to the rural household takes the form of irregular transfer of funds back home (Stark, 1991; Stichter, 1982).



*International migration* is when the family members move either temporarily or permanently abroad.

In terms of economic decision-making, migration has been viewed variously as individual choices or inter-temporal family agreement. There are two major factors in such decisions. The first is based on the high-income differentials between rural and urban jobs, and the second is based on the high risk and imperfections in rural capital markets. One of the major goals of migration is to guarantee a consistent income that is not correlated with seasonal cycles or risk factors. Migration is often viewed negatively by economists and developers in policy terms (de Haan, 1999). This reflects unease about urbanization rates and labour movements across national boundaries. However it is part of population mobility.

In the last two decades the United Nations agencies, mainly the United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) and the United Nations Population Funds (UNPF) have focused on the relationship between development and rural migration to the urban areas. They have also undertaken studies that revealed the need to develop strategies on a national and international level based on socio-cultural, economic, governance and environmental principles and factors. Development strategies were essential since it was found that there is a major problem that can be summarized by an enormous population growth and rural migration into the urban areas (cities) (UNDP, 1997; 2003; 2004; UNECWS, 1980; WB, 1990a; 1990b; 1992; 1997). This phenomenon has a direct negative socio-cultural, economic and environmental impact which can touch directly into the peoples' dignity, wellbeing, progress, development, participation and sustainability. Controlling this present and future migration phenomenon is done by the development of strategies that focus on eliminating poverty which is found to be the major source of the problem (Hoddinott, 1994; WB, 1992; 1997).

- 2- The *agricultural intensification strategy* is based on a reliance on agriculture either by intensifying resource use like mono-culture production, or by bringing more land into cultivation or grazing. This strategy requires special attention from the national institutions which should introduce agriculture,



forest, range, natural resource and land-use management plans into agriculture practice. If this is not done, this strategy can have drastic negative environmental impacts like the reduction in local biodiversity, increase in the release of Nitrogen oxide, changes in the ecosystem composition and a rise in the nitrate levels in freshwater supplies above the acceptable level of human consumption which can damage the freshwater habitat. One of the answers to the negative affect of agriculture intensification is to apply a diversification strategy (FAO, 1997; Walker, 1986; 1990).

- 3- *Diversification strategy* on the other hand focuses more on implementing many different activities, relying on natural and non-natural resources (Bigsten, 1996; DOE, 1995; RDC, 1998a; IBRD, 1997). It is considered as a major player in rural development and poverty reduction (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Flora *et al.*, 2004; Shepherd, 1998). It aims to improve wealth and reduce risk and vulnerability (Davies, 1996; Davies and Hossain, 1997; Frank, 2000). The diversified strategy is based on investing in one or more of the five main types of resources that were discussed previously for the purpose of improving future livelihood prospects (see Figure 3.1)(Berry, 1993; Ellis, 2000). The quality and quantity of such resources make a big difference to rural livelihood. The distinguishing aspect of assets as a motive for diversification is in its ability to offer greater future security (Putnam *et al.*, 1993). One of these major assets is the natural capital on which the capital stock generally relies (IBRD, 1997). For that reason the livelihood diversification strategy should importantly consider natural based activities, resources management (environment) and social status as major players in the development process (Moseley, 2003; Redclif, 1994; 2000; Richards, 2000).

The diversification strategy can help the household switch from on-farm to off-farm income generating activities. In this respect it can improve the ease with which the household can convert from one type of asset to another. Access to off-farm incomes depends on relatively high level skills, education and good health. It also requires a credit market that is willing to invest on medium or long-term basis (Mosely, 2003; World bank, 1997). As a result, this makes possible further increases in human capital “labour market” on-



going investment either in farming or non-farm activities. The poor have particularly strong incentives to diversify because of seasonality and risk, but may be unable to do so due to the lack of assets needed to diversify. The *natural, human, social, financial and physical capitals* should be properly integrated into a diversified strategy in order to bring about a successful rural livelihood (IBRD, 1997).

### 3.6.3 Discussion

As discussed previously in paragraph 3.5.1 in relation to rural livelihood policies, there are many themes that can be part of a diversification strategy, like ecotourism which is an activity that relies mainly on the types of assets mentioned above. It can be considered a major source of revenue for rural areas (Towner, 1996; WTO, 1996a; 1996b). Ecotourism has gradually changed from being a passive and minor actor in affecting the landscape to become a major player and a dominant agent of change and control of that landscape and of the associated rural communities. These changes in attitude and increase in attention toward ecotourism as a major activity that can economically revitalize rural areas have developed a positive response from some rural communities who considered this activity as a rescuer to the countryside (Butler, 1998; Hall, 2001; WTO, 1996b). Ecotourism will be discussed in chapter four where its positive and negative aspects as well as its impacts on the rural areas are raised.

## 3.7 Reflections concerning Sustainability and Rural Livelihood

According to Reed (1996) among others, the sustainability approach proposed by international conferences conveys continuity to the ecosystem by offering diversity and protection for the species. It also satisfies human needs while sustaining available resources for human consumption. This is done by preserving the capacity of natural resources or systems to keep up the same or increase their contribution to human welfare (Swift, 1998).

### 3.7.1 Debating sustainability concept

To Authors like Leach and Mearns (1996), sustainability has failed as a dynamic process that can offer constructive diversity to human development and protection



to the ecosystem. Equally, a “carrying capacity” assessment is not required in response to human intervention, since the ecosystem is in continuous adaptation to the perturbations and shocks. Likewise, researchers like Altieri (1995) believe that one of the major weaknesses of a sustainability approach is that it only addresses renewable natural resources and not non-renewable ones which really require direct intervention.

In the same context, Pasek (1992) raises a philosophical concern about the moral obligations that current generations should have towards future ones regarding the sustainable use of natural assets (see para 3.3). To him the current generation cannot prejudge the tastes and preferences of future ones which might have different values, norms and concerns. Further more, Beckerman (1992) brings up economic issues related to inter-generational comparisons of material welfare. He explains that economic growth is occurring and technology is continuously changing. As a result, future generations will have higher income, and more options for welfare development than current ones. For that the necessity to conserve some types of natural resources for the wellbeing of future generations may become irrelevant in the future. Equally, some economists like Dasgupta and Miller (1995) consider the environment a capital stock of natural assets that compliment the physical, human and social ones. They indicate that most of the development approaches involve categories of assets that could be substituted by others within the development process (see also Dasgupta, 1993).

### 3.7.2 The position of the research regarding sustainability

A different approach is raised by Reed (1996) and is adopted by the research. To Reed (1996) “Sustainable development is a normative concept that embodies standards of judgment and behaviour to be respected as the human community seeks to satisfy its needs of survival and well being”. Reed’s definition conveys economic, social and environmental needs. It includes major requirements that should be fulfilled like labour-intensive growth, distributional equity, provision of social services, full valuation of natural resources in the development of projects, and limiting the consumption of renewable resources. Equally, the research considers sustainable development a concept with desired attributes that causes positive environmental, social and economic changes. The research also believes



that sustainable development can improve the quality of human life if it is applied within the carrying capacity of the ecosystem.

### 3.7.3 Sustainable development of rural livelihood

The notion of sustainable development of rural livelihood has emerged in part from ecological definitions of sustainability and in part from economic and social development that are related to poverty, vulnerability, food security and deprivation (Conway, 1985; 1987; Brenstein *et al.*, 1992; Scoones, 1998). The sustainable rural livelihood development approach focuses on people and their capacity to create long-term positive rural chances. It relies on research and policy as means for interventions and development (Carney, 1998; Scoones, 1998). It is based on developing and applying strategies in a defined policy, politics, history, agri-ecology and institutional context (see para. 3.5.1.3) (Breez *et al.*, 2000; Chamber, 1997; DFID, 2000; Ellis, 2000). The sustainable rural livelihood development approach was created with the aim of reducing poverty and the protection of natural resources. The framework for sustainable rural livelihood developed by Carney (1998) was created to provide a wider understanding of the complicated diversified rural livelihood process (see Figure, 3.1).

### 3.7.4 Debating the concept of sustainable rural livelihood

There are two major difficulties that should be resolved in order to reach a true understanding of sustainable rural livelihood. The first one is to identify what assets should be preserved and the second is the selection of a policy for reaching sustainable rural livelihood (Altieri, 1995; Leach and Mears, 1996). Carney (1998) identified natural, social, human, financial and physical asset as the major elements needed to develop a successful sustainable rural livelihood policy (see Figure, 3.1). Alternatively, authors like Brockles and Fisher (2003) believe these assets only have minor effect on this type of policy (see Figure, 3.1) (see para. 3.5.1). For these authors, the policy applied to reach sustainable rural livelihood in many developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America is based on technocratic factors and not on natural and cultural assets.

On the other hand, researchers like Breez *et al.* (2000) believe that there are unclear factors that play a major role in developing institutions and creating



policies. These factors influence decision makers and household's choices and capabilities to reach sustainable rural livelihood strategy. Equally, Korf (2004) indicates that there exist different actors within the household in a community and that the unequal power and opportunity that these actors exert on livelihood opportunities can have a direct effect on rural livelihood policy and on the framework for sustainable rural livelihood (see para. 3.5.1 and Figure, 3.1). Alternatively, researchers like Cleaver (2002) and Murray (2002) among others, find that the sustainable rural livelihood policy discussed previously (see para 3.5.1) must be able to deal with aid agencies which are willing to participate in the development process. However, this is not the case because it is unable to cover the complexity and dynamics of local institutional practices and relationships.

### 3.7.5 Approaches for sustainable rural livelihood

Based on the recommendations set by Agenda 21 to reach sustainable rural livelihood, two approaches were developed (see para. 3.3.1). The first one focused on exploring the levels of poverty and social exclusion (Byrne, 1999; Sen, 1999). The second one was a “bottom-up” “Participatory Rural Appraisal” (PRA) approach which focused on a policy and action to achieve community development while interacting directly with the rural communities (Nelson and Wright, 1995).

There are intellectual debates that question the ability of getting a sustainable rural livelihood development on a community by using the “bottom-up” PRA approach for two reasons. *Firstly*, the approach addresses communities with a simplistic notion, ignoring that these communities are of a heterogeneous nature and that it is more complex to deal with them especially if the aim of the approach is to enhance the capabilities of marginalised groups; and *secondly*, the presence of many influential social, economic and governance factors that could divert the trend of the results (Chambers, 1994; Cleaver, 2001; Murray, 2002).

To Gujit and Shah (1998), the “bottom-up” PRA approach is a myth because it is based on the assumptions that the local communities are homogeneous entities which are not. Equally, the local elites are able to take control over participatory



processes making the PRA approach their own instruments to keep social, economic and governance control over their region.

The “bottom-up” PRA approach as described by Cooke and Kothari (2001) is often imposed on local communities by government institutions and donor agencies who then usually dominate the process. Furthermore, donor and developing agencies keep obscure control over the processes of defining problems and negotiations between the agencies and the local people. They use this process as a tool for them to keep control over fund flows rather than an empowering planning and development process (Cleaver, 2001; Mosse, 2001). Many scholars like Leeuwis (2000) and Mosse (2001) dispute the validity of social learning and communication services (capacity building) that the PRA approach offers. They disagree with the assumption that lack of knowledge would slow down local development and that local knowledge could lead to local adapted solutions for rural development. Pretty and Scoones (1995), consider that integrating the “bottom-up” PRA approach into the government’s planning process is still difficult to achieve because of the bureaucratic structure of public institutions and development agencies.

### 3.7.6 The position of the research concerning the PRA

Regardless of the criticism discussed previously concerning the use of “bottom-up” PRA approach, the research considers this approach a useful method to develop deprived rural regions for the following reasons. *Firstly*, it explores and analyses facts and conditions related to the rural communities’ needs and requirements; and *secondly*, it applies with the help of external experts and facilitators, workshops and conferences that involve large parts of local rural communities and NGOs. These meetings aim to stimulate discussions based on an exchange and share of information and ideas in a transparency context.

The purpose of the meetings is to identify problems and needs and derive appropriate solutions. The information is shared between insiders (local residents) and outsiders (planners). The meetings also try to find ways to satisfy the local residents’ economic, environmental and social needs and requirements while sustaining the natural and cultural assets of the residents’ region. The “bottom-up”



PRA approach is used to offer capacity building to local communities and local governments as well as combine research with planning to fight poverty and deprivation in rural areas through sustainable rural livelihood (Carney 1998; Chambers, 1994).

### 3.8 Conclusion

This chapter demonstrates that poverty is a major factor which entices rural residents to over exploit their natural and cultural resources or migrate to urban areas. To address this situation, solutions must be sought, one of which will be a diversified rural livelihood strategy that takes advantage of the natural, cultural and social assets of the region while incorporating a *cross-sectoral conservation and sustainable development policy*. This policy is reached by applying a “bottom-up participatory rural appraisal approach” (PRA) followed by a Carrying Capacity and Environmental Impact Assessment on the natural resources while developing guide lines and indicators to guarantee conservation of the natural and cultural assets and to evaluate and monitor the strategy’s output (see para. 4.3.2 and Appendix 19).

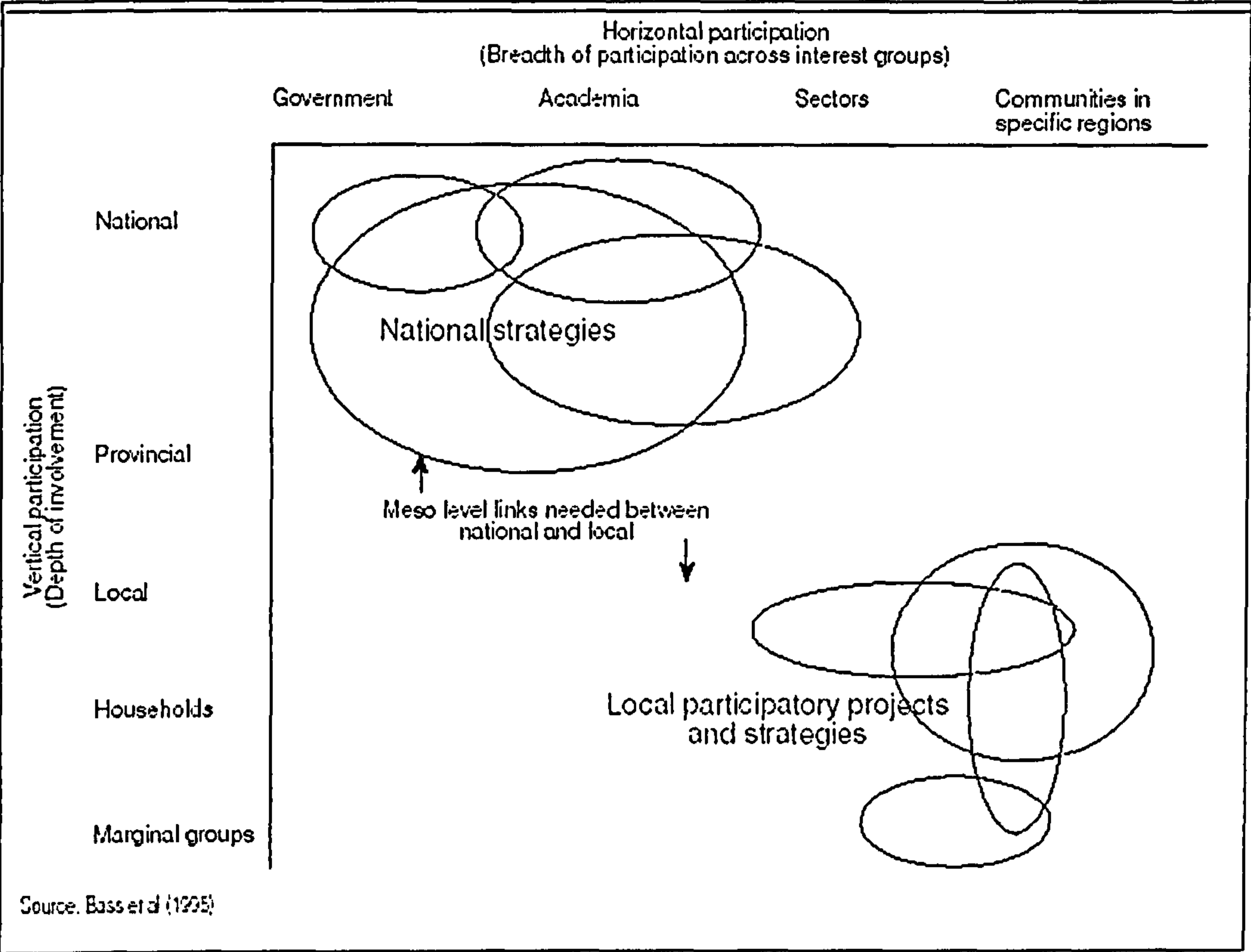
The diversified strategy aims to guarantee a secure future for the local population and to assure steady and satisfactory revenue in order to manage and cope with adverse shocks and risks. This is done by offering a chance to invest in more than one sector like agriculture, ecotourism and culture rather than totally relying only on one source of income (Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Dalal-Clayton and Bass, 2002; IBRD, 1997; Ginther, 1995; Rao, 2000). The process for developing the diversified strategy, its indicators and guide lines must follow a “bottom-up participatory rural appraisal approach” (PRA) that places strong emphasis on people, communities and organizations (Community Based and Nongovernmental Organisations).

The “bottom-up participatory rural appraisal approach” (PRA) approach allows the different social groups to debate the gains and losses in the development process. In this respect Bass *et al.* (1995) propose for the development and implementation of this strategy a governance policy that relies on a combination of *horizontal* and *vertical* sharing of ideas. The *horizontal* involvement puts



forward the interaction needed to ensure that common issues are dealt with across interest groups such as ministries and communities in different parts of the country. Meanwhile, the *vertical* “top-down” participation deals with the same issues throughout a hierarchy of decision making from national to local levels, or from leaders to marginalized groups (see Figure 3.2).

**Figure 3.2 Participation process for the development of a strategy**



The deeper the vertical participation within a given institution or nation, the better the understanding and support for the strategy is likely to be. This process over time contributes to the shaping of rural livelihood options and decisions. The success in reaching sustainable rural livelihood relies on applying a diversified strategy as a solution to answer the research question by: *firstly*, finding sources of income for the rural areas through income generation activities like “ecotourism” and *secondly*, exploring site management methods to properly maintain and sustain the natural and cultural assets. For that reason productive sectors like ecotourism and site management methods are fully explored in the following chapter of the research.



## **4 Ecotourism and Site Management**



## 4.1 Introduction

In chapter three, the research investigated strategies to reduce out-migration in rural areas. It reviewed major concepts such as sustainable development and rural livelihood. It revealed that the development of rural livelihood is essential for stopping depopulation to urban areas. It was evident from the study that the reduction in the rate of depopulation is directly related to the creation of jobs in rural areas. It can happen by the implementation of a diversified strategy that depends on the sustainable use of natural, physical and human sources in the region. The process should follow a mixture of approaches that are horizontal, vertical and bottom-up.

It was found in chapter 3 that Ecotourism and appropriate site management are essential elements for developing a diversified strategy in deprived rural regions and, by that, generate jobs for the local people. As mentioned in the introductory chapter, many international organisations believe ecotourism to be a potential source of revenue for rural areas (see para 1.1) (UNDP, 2004; World Bank, 1990a, 1990b; WTO, 1996b). They consider ecotourism and natural site management as two major means for preserving natural resources and an effective tool for alleviating poverty. In this respect this chapter examines ecotourism through definitions that are given to it by professionals and experts in the fields of ecology and tourism. It highlights the components of this concept and analyses the context and the milieu in which it is used and applied (see para 5.3.1).

This chapter deals with some major tourism and ecotourism planning and management methods as well as their impacts on rural livelihood. It highlights certain measures that can be applied for the development of a successful site management approach by exploring the way by which two pioneer national parks in North America were created and evolved. It then evaluates the motives and drives of some tourists and defines their profile, requirements and needs. Finally, this chapter concludes with a number of recommendations that are essential for reaching a diversified strategy.



## 4.2 The Origin of Ecotourism as an activity and term

In many countries and civilizations people have visited wilderness areas to experience its intrinsic beauty and tranquillity. This was the case in Europe, Asia and America (Nash, 1982). In Africa, wildlife-based tourism was developed in the mid-nineteenth century and early twentieth century (Trunball, 1981; Wilson, 1992). As for the etymology of the term ecotourism it is not yet very clear, but in the mid-1970s the Canadian government set up programmes called “ecotours” with centres located next to the Trans-Canada Highway. These activities were developed around different ecological zones and were called “ecozones”. Pauses were suggested at specific sites. The main purpose of these trips was to introduce the traveller to the human-land relationship through the interpretation of the natural environment. In this trip the traveller is introduced to the features of landscape, as well as natural and human history, which is described and interpreted for them (Fennell, 1999).

Originally, ecotourism was referred to as “nature tourism” and analysts defined it *as a tourism that focuses principally on natural resources such as relatively undisturbed parks and natural areas, wetlands, wildlife reserves, and other areas of protected flora, fauna, and habitats* (Fennell, 1999). It is a type of tourism which *travellers are drawn to because of their interest in one or more features of that area and mainly its natural history. The visit combines education, recreation, and often adventure* (Laarman and Durst 1987:5).

Goodwin (1995) saw nature tourism as travelling for the purpose of enjoying undeveloped natural areas of wildlife. He described it as a tourism that includes adventure tourism, low-impact tourism, and ecotourism. He defined ecotourism as an activity that uses natural resources including mainly species, habitat, landscape, scenery and salt and fresh-water in its wild or undeveloped form.

Tourism experts saw “ecotourism” as the narrow part of “nature tourism”. They associated it with *operators, running nature-oriented tours and by the use of natural resources including beaches and country landscapes as its major components*. The purpose of ecotourism was defined by Héctor Ceballos-Lascuràin (1987) as “travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated



natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestation (both past and present) found in these areas”.

To Fennell (1999:43) “Ecotourism is a sustainable form of natural resource-based tourism that focuses primarily on experiencing and learning about nature which is ethically managed to be low-impact, non-consumptive, and locally oriented (control, benefits, and scale)”. Equally, the Australian National Ecotourism Strategy group saw ecotourism as a nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable (Peerce *et al.*, 1995). Ziffer (1989) saw ecotourism from a different perspective. For her, this activity is inspired primarily by the natural history of an area, including its indigenous cultures. It includes visits to undeveloped areas for appreciation, participation and sensitivity. It practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources.

Hetzer (1965) saw ecotourism as the result of a growing dissatisfaction with government and society’s mismanagement of the environment. This view was shared by Nelson (1991) who indicated that ecotourism was developed between the 1960’s and 1970’s, when researchers became concerned about the inappropriate use of natural resources. He suggested that the term “eco-development” was introduced in an attempt to slow down nature damaging development. Failure of the local authorities and concerned communities to protect and preserve the natural resources and to limit massive development has led to the creation of ecotourism (Nelson, 1991).

#### 4.2.1 Benefits from ecotourism

To Fennel, ecotourism benefits the local communities through the conservation and preservation of the area. This quality is also shared by the Canadian Environmental Advisory Council (CEAC) which held a Notional Workshop on ecotourism in 1991 and indicated that ecotourism contributes to conservation of the ecosystem while respecting the integrity of host communities (Wight, 1994).



Hetzer (1965) explained the interactive relationship between tourism, environment and culture and identified four fundamental benefits that ecotourism offers, which are:

- Minimum negative environmental impact;
- Maximum respect for the host culture;
- Maximum economic benefits to the host country's grassroots;
- Maximum recreational satisfaction to participating tourists.

Goodwin (1995) specified that ecotourism has a positive impact since it adds to the preservation of species and habitats through enhancing proper site management, providing revenue to the local community sufficient enough to make them value their land, and motivate them to protect their wildlife heritage area. To Ziffer (1989) ecotourism contributes to the area visited through labour or financial means. It aims at directly benefiting the conservation and the maintenance of the site and the economic well-being and needs of local residents. It is an incentive for enforcing regulations and land management as well as community development and highlights two major aspects of ecotourism which are *Activities* such as “nature travel”, “adventure travel” and “culture travel”, and *Moral values* such as “responsible acts”, and “ethics”.

Wallace and Pierce (1996) have similar views to those of Ziffer's. They claim that ecotourism develops ways of achieving conservation and sustainable development. According to them there are major requirements that ecotourism offers: *firstly*, a type of use that minimises negative impacts on the environment and local people; *secondly*, an awareness and understanding of the area's natural systems, and the involvement of the visitors in a positive approach to the system; *thirdly*, a contribution to the conservation and management of the area; *fourthly*, maximisation on a long-term basis of the participation of local people in the decision making process concerning the kind and the amount of tourism that should occur (Crewe, 2001); *fifthly*, a chance to introduce certain economic activities that benefit the local people and complement rather than replace traditional practices (farming, fishing, social system); and *sixthly*, an offer to provide special opportunities for local people and those employed in tourism to interact with them and learn more about the potential of their sites. Wallace and



Pierce (1996) indicated that ecotourism has *education, sustainability and ethics* as key variables that differentiate it from its more broad-based nature tourism counterpart.

As for implementing ecotourism, the WTO has developed guidelines and recommendations, that have a low impact on the environment, respect the cultural traditions of the region, and offer a source of revenue to the indigenous people (WTO, 1994b; 2000b) (see Appendix 6).

#### 4.2.2 Alternative tourism verses ecotourism

In the last quarter of the twentieth century a new trend in tourism called *Alternative Tourism* has evolved. It incorporates a vast range of activities such as appropriate, eco-, soft, responsible, people to people, controlled, small scale, cottage, and green tourism. It also covers other activities like agricultural, cultural and religious tourism (Dearden and Harron, 1993; Weaver, 1991, 1993 and 1995). It benefits the individuals or families by offering accommodation, based in local homes. In so doing, it generates direct revenue to the host families, motivates them to renovate and enhance their residences and offers them a chance to develop managerial skills. This activity benefits local communities through upgrading housing standards while avoiding huge public infrastructure expenses. It helps the host country prevent social tensions and preserve local traditions, reduces the leakage of tourism revenue outside the country. It also offers close contact between the developed industrialized countries and the developing ones and promotes international, interregional, and intercultural knowledge and understanding.

More specifically for the success of Alternative Tourism, Weaver has focused on major attributes such as: *accommodation, attractions, market, economic impact, and regulation* (Weaver, 1995; Weaver *et al.*, 1996). He pointed out certain requirements for the implementation of each, which can be summarized as follows:



- *Accommodation* should be part of the community. It must be beneficial and evenly distributed throughout the region. It has to be less competitive with homes and businesses, offers its largest percentage of revenues to local areas and put forward greater opportunity for local entrepreneurs to participate in the tourism sector.
- *Attractions* should promote and enhance the authenticity and uniqueness of the community. It should educate and promote self-fulfilment and benefit the locals from the existence of the attractions even if tourists are not present.
- *The market* should avoid overwhelming and stress exerted on the locals by big numbers of tourists. It should incorporate a desirable type of visitor and offer less vulnerability and disruption within single major market.
- *The economy* should offer diversity while avoiding single-sector dependence, interaction and enforcement between the sectors, a high net revenues of money that circulate within the community and more jobs and economic activity.
- As for *regulations* they should be part of the community's development and strategy decisions whereby they should a)-meet ecological, social, and economic needs; b)-follow a holistic approach that stresses the integration and well-being of community interest; c)-be based on a long-term approach that takes into account the welfare of future generations, protects the integrity of foundation assets and reduces the possibility of irreversibility. This approach should satisfy the needs of local people, the tourists, and local resources. It should be implemented in a complementary rather than a competitive environment.

Most forms of *Alternative Tourism* are sustainable in nature. The two major types are *socio-cultural* and *ecological* in nature. *Socio-cultural* tourism includes for example “rural tourism” and “farm tourism” where a large portion of the tourism experience is founded upon the cultural milieu that corresponds to the environment in which local farms operate and in which farmers are able to produce and sell their own crops, products and natural pharmaceuticals, and the craftsmen sell their local artefacts. Such a strategy benefits both local communities and the tourism industry (Eagles, 1992). *Ecotourism*, on the other hand involves a type of tourism that is less socio-cultural in its orientation, and



more dependent upon nature and natural resources as the primary component or motivator of the trip (Boo, 1990; Weaver, 1993; Weaver *et al.*, 1996).

Some experts consider ecotourism as unique because of its function and role within the tourism marketplace. This position is based on the assumption that there is little empirical evidence to demonstrate homogeneity between “adventure”, “culture”, and “ecotourism”, and that there may be an associated dilution factor or effect on ecotourism if these three types of tourism merge into one (Fennell, 1999; Ross *et al.*, 1999; Ziffer, 1989). On the other hand, the research has found that there is an evolving relationship that is happening between the “*socio-cultural* and the *ecological*” sectors of tourism. This relationship has become stronger over the past few years; as a result many marketing studies consider these two products of tourism as synonymous and refer to them as “ecotourism” (Canadian Tourism Commission 1995; Gunn, 1994; Kusler, 1991; Wight, 1994).

#### 4.2.3 Discussion

It is clear from previous discussions that ecotourism started as a nature-based activity that relies on ecology as its basic component and includes *studying*, *admiring*, and *enjoying nature*. In addition to natural activities, ecotourism has evolved to cover social and cultural ones as well. It is expected to benefit the host community economically, socially and educationally. But there is a difference between ideology and reality. According to Brown (1994), there is a conflict between economic and sustainable development. Fast economic gain that is reached by the help of ecotourism might threaten the ecology and the social stability which are major elements for sustainable development in a region.

Economic development, if not properly planned, can introduce new economic activities, traditions and cultures that could work against the moral values and ethics of the host community. In order to counter this negative trend, appropriate site management strategies that rely on the conservation of the natural and cultural assets of the destination area must be applied. This process must be accompanied by awareness and understanding of the region’s natural system and a long-term



participation of local people. For this reason the second part of this chapter investigates various planning and management tools for ecotourism development.

### 4.3 Planning for Tourism and Ecotourism

Planning is a key element and a first step in the development of a site. It is defined as “a process which aims at anticipating, regulating and monitoring changes so as to contribute to the wider sustainability of the destination, and thereby enhance the tourist experience in the destination or place” (Hall *et al.*, 1998; Kozlowski, 1990; Page *et al.*, 2002).

#### 4.3.1 Tourism planning

Tourism planning is a continuous process that is system-oriented and integrated within the overall context of an area. This process is pragmatic in application and takes into consideration *environment* and *community values*. Tourism planning covers the whole area in question and is managed in such a manner as to conserve and preserve natural and cultural resources. Such a procedure enables the region under study to be used on a permanent basis for continuous future applications. To achieve a successful planning process for the tourism sector, government agencies and NGOs, as well as private sectors and local communities, must be involved. The process should be accompanied by good marketing, promotional and funding campaigns (Inskeep, 1994; WTO, 1994b). Tourism planning starts by:

- Preparing a study in which the planning authorities, mainly government agencies decide to proceed with the development of a tourism plan;
- Determining objectives, where the main purpose of the plan is identified;
- Surveying all elements, where an inventory of all the existing tourism resources and facilities are surveyed as well as their state of development;
- Analysing and synthesise the information and data already collected. This might include asset evaluation, market analysis, planning development and impact analysis;
- Formulating policy and plan which includes the testing of a variety of scenarios, the drafting of a development plan, the development of tourism policy options, and the identification of certain goals. Some of the major key policies are environment conservation and protection, local community agreements;



- o Implementing and monitoring the tourism plan as well as a doing periodic reviews (Hall, 2001; Page *et al.*, 2002).

#### 4.3.2 Environmental planning

The environmental planning process has almost the same characteristics as that of general tourism planning. It has more emphasis on the identification of natural resources which are part of the “land-use planning” process. It also incorporates concepts for “environmental protection” and “resource conservation”. Environmental preservation comprises the protection of the natural environment and includes the protection of species and the sheltering of some of the environmentally significant and or sensitive areas. The natural resource conservation involves the protection of nature’s renewable and non-renewable elements that are of direct interest to the human being.

Some environmental planning approaches have been developed for the conservation of the natural areas, mainly the Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) which include an environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) (Kozowski, 1990; WTO, 1993) (see Figure 4.1). Others were developed for recreational purposes such as the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) (Stankey, 1988; Stankey *et al.*, 1985) (see Figure 4.2). These two approaches are mainly applied in environmentally sensitive areas.

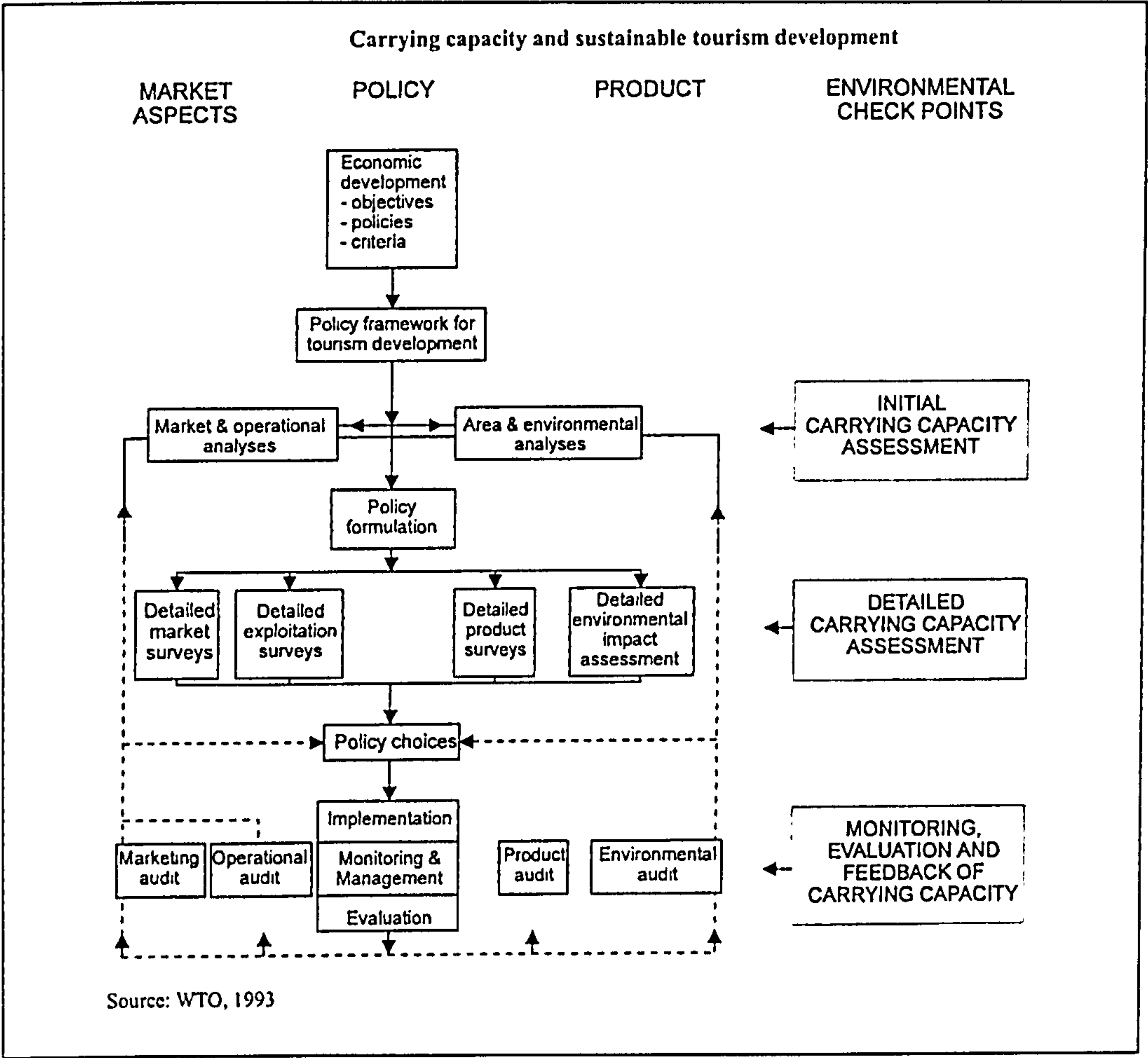
The Carrying Capacity approach is based on defining the “maximum number of visitors” above which appropriate ecological, social and economic conditions could not be sustained. The process starts by highlighting the objective, policy and criteria for formulating a tourism development framework. This process is followed by a preliminary market and environment analysis to develop a policy for the management of the park. Market and ecosystem analysis of the area under study are then applied. A final Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) and management framework is developed which includes a continuing monitoring and evaluation approach (see Figure 4.1).

The CCA mixes theory and practice. It aims to define the type of desired social, environmental and economic conditions, such as the type of recreational activities,



the required density for these activities and their impact and relationship to each other. This is done through discussions with stakeholders, managers and local NGOs and CBOs. The CCA also defines the number of people visiting the area under study and controls access to it. The “limitation of visits” as a means for sustaining the ecological and social conditions in a destination area is either overlooked or forgotten. The CCA can make sure that this aspect is properly taken into consideration.

Figure 4.1 Carrying Capacity diagram



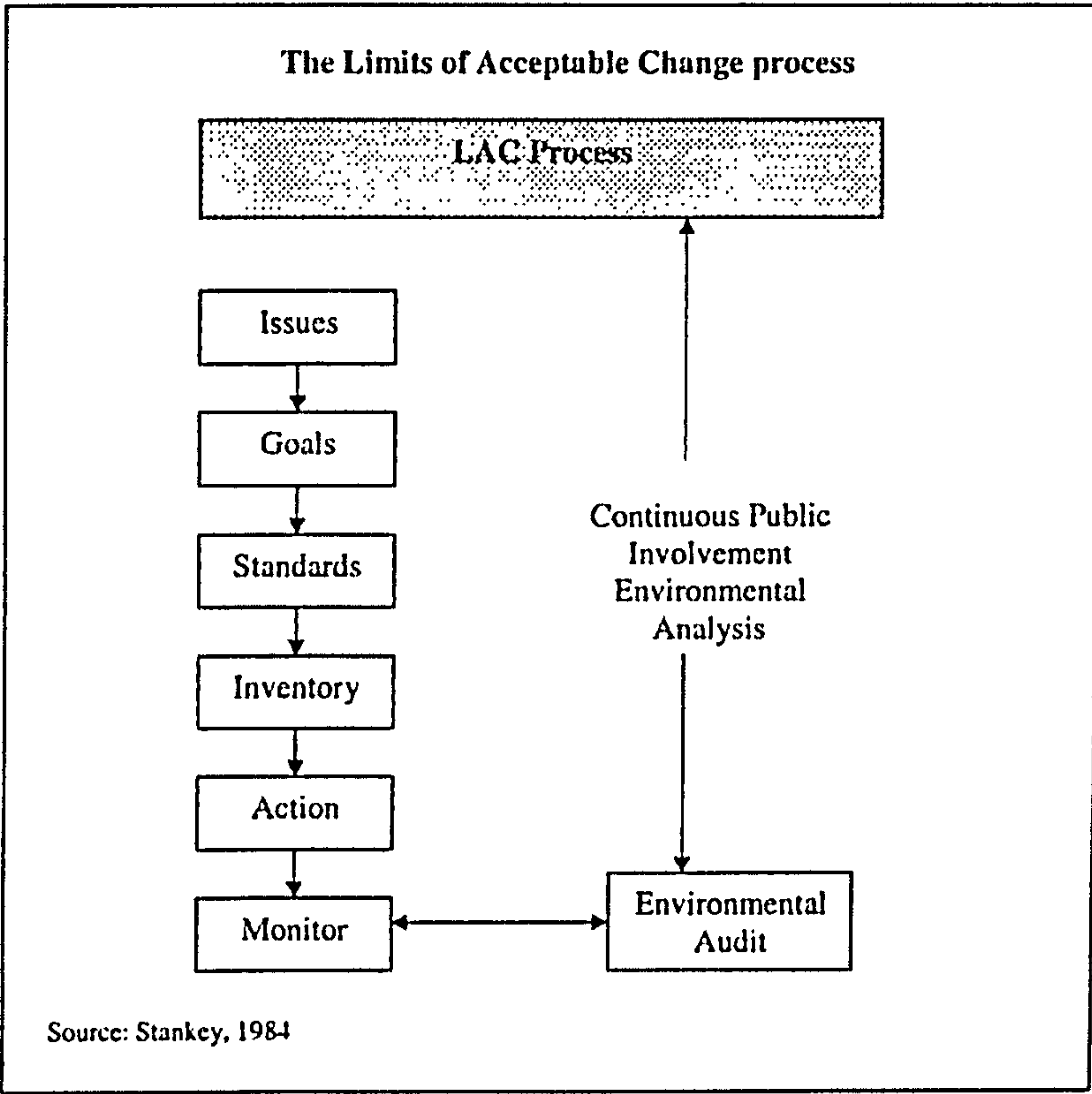
The Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) focuses on managing for desired conditions rather than on how much the area can tolerate. It defines what constitutes acceptable change in terms of the recreational Carrying Capacity of the area and establishes limits with respect to human impact on the natural setting.



The process involves:

- Description of the desired conditions in terms of resources, social and managerial attributes;
- Establishment of the current conditions through a baseline inventory;
- Comparison of existing and desired conditions;
- Initiation of management actions to maintain or achieve desired conditions;
- Monitoring of the results and;
- Modification of management actions as appropriate (see Figure 4.2) (Driver *et al.*, 1987; Stankey *et al.*, 1985; Stankey *et al.*, 1988; Van Oosterzee, 1984).

Figure 4.2 Limits of Acceptable Change process



This framework accepts to adapt nature to recreational use. But there is a quandary of what constitutes an acceptable level of human tampering, which might negatively affect the ecological and social factors in the area (Page *et al.*, 2002).



### 4.3.3 Ecotourism planning

According to Inskeep, (1991) “tourism planning” and “natural attractions’ conservation planning” for parks and natural reserves, should be closely coordinated. They should be developed at national, regional and local levels with respect to both geographic, distribution and intensity of the tourism development. As for the achievement of environmental-tourism compatibility in natural areas, it is best dealt with at the regional level, where it is suggested that tourism planning can provide one of the best opportunities for attaining environmental goals (UNDP and WTO, 1983).

For ecotourism planning Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) has identified major steps to be followed.

- The preparation of a study that incorporates planning types and terms of reference;
- The determination of objectives which includes the government policy/strategy, development priority, marketing and annual growth;
- Implementation of surveys which cover inventories of existing environmental attributes that are later evaluated and analysed in regard to their resource potential;
- Syntheses that includes an overlook analysis of opportunities and constraints for development as well as other related variables;
- Policy and plan formulation, which involves the preparation of relevant ecotourism policies based on the economic, social and environmental, needs of the region. These could be translated at a later stage into an ecotourism plan strategy;
- Set recommendations that are made based on the policies and findings and;
- Implementation and monitoring.

### 4.3.4 Discussion

There are many similarities between environment and tourism that can be summarized as follows. Environmental protection and tourism development have a major goal, which is the conservation and sustainable development of the major physical and socio-cultural assets. They share the same approach which



incorporates planning, setting goals, data collection, analysis, synthesis, recommendations, implementations and monitoring. They share the same spatial framework, social value, cultural activity nodes, clusters of attraction, and community services. Finally, both sectors consider the local people a major component in the ecosystem (WTO, 1994a; 1994b; 1996b).

Numerous environmental and tourism planning frameworks have been developed. But, so far, there are limited planning processes dedicated for ecotourism. Since ecotourism planning involves the characteristics of both environment and tourism, the research can deduce the following planning components. For environment planning the main issues are environmental protection and assessment and resources conservation, while for tourism planning it is more economic development and social assessment. A successful ecotourism planning approach should balance between environment and tourism features.

In North America management within parks is led through a number of planning and management frameworks some of which are the *Limits of Acceptable Change* (LAC) as used in the United States, and the Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) that is used in Canada (Dearden and Rollins, 1993; Stankey, 1985). The LAC and CCA complement each other in terms of exploring the natural resources for sustainable ecotourism development. Their aim is to develop recreation resources that provide diverse types of economic opportunities for local people. This is achieved by applying a vast range of environmental, social and economic inventory to the region and the development of a management framework which matches the demand for recreational activities and the supply for this demand.

The CCA and the LAC incorporate an “ecosystem planning” philosophy that is based on safeguarding the environment while taking into consideration the natural setting. Together these methods help decision makers collect and organise information about recreation use and its impacts. This is the basis for reaching appropriate site development and to make positive contributions to the *natural and cultural assets* and to the *local community* (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Dowling, 1993; Ross *et al.*, 1999; Stankey *et al.*, 1985).



#### 4.4 Ecotourism management

Ecotourism management is the following step after finalising an ecotourism development plan. It is based on properly administering the major elements that compose the site, which are the ecosystem's physical and human resources. This process regulates the internal structure of the site and its function to achieve socially desirable conditions. It usually takes place in a dynamic setting. This management process necessitates the participation of different planning agencies, the ecotourism industry in addition to government agencies, municipalities, NGOs, academia, and the local community. It includes general meetings and workshops to set up main guidelines and objectives for the management of a site. It includes environmental policies and strategies at a regional level. As a result, management plans, objectives and goals are developed and recommendations are set (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Davies *et al.*, 1991; Fennell, 1999; Page *et al.*, 2002).

An effective management plan starts by preparing a study and a planning type that is based on goals already agreed on and terms of reference already specified in an ecotourism development plan. This process is followed by a survey and analyses through a base line inventory of the existing tourism resources and facilities, as well as their state of development in order to develop environmental and tourism attributes indicators, and variables.

The selection and use of indicators for each type of activity is a major factor in reaching a successful and sustainable management framework. Indicators can be physical, social, managerial and others and reflect the characteristics of the site. There are many possible indicators for a given activity. It is important to select indicators that are relevant to the site because they help define the output the management is trying to achieve and focus on specific conditions and problems. They also help the public to clearly understand what the management process is aiming to accomplish and link concrete, on-the-ground conditions with more vague, qualitative experiences (Bell and Morse, 2000; Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Crains, 1993).

Choosing proper indicators for managing a site must be based on a survey of the natural and cultural assets, an understanding of what the management of the site is



trying to achieve, and an interactive exchange of ideas between the local communities, stakeholders, public and private institutions and academia (see Table 4.1). The management process analyses and synthesises the findings formulated for usage in the final plans. This includes asset evaluation, market analysis and impact analysis. It develops recommendations that are based on the policies and findings and formulates ecotourism policies and strategies that are based on economic, social and environmental needs for the region that are translated into a “visitors management plan”, a “zoning and land-use plan”, an “operation plan”, “service and maintenance plan” and “future expansion and development plan”. These management plans are implemented, monitored and periodically reviewed.

**Table 4.1 Indicators for the sustainable development of a site**

Indicator	Description and category
Site classification	-The IUCN (International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) eleven categories for the classification and protection of natural areas (see Appendix 5).
Stress level	-The tourists number visiting the site (per annum/peak month)
Intensity of use	- peak period (person /hectare)
Social quality	-The ratio of tourists to locals (peak period and over time) -Potential social stress (ratio average income of tourists/locals) -In season sites (percentage of vendors open year round) -Antagonism (reported incidents between locals and tourists)/ degree of respect for host culture and cultural traditions. -Safety (crime levels)
Economic Quality	-Amount of economic activity generated by ecotourism
Environments Quality	-Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment. -Waste counts (amounts of rubbish, costs) -Pollution (air pollution count) -Additional indicators may include structural limits of other infrastructure capacity on site, such as water supply)
Physical Quality	-Percentage of surface area eroded -Site degradation (restoration/repair status and repair cost) -Structure degradation (precipitation acidity, air pollution counts)
Biodiversity	-Key species counts -Species health (reproductive success, species diversity) -Ecosystem degradation (number and mix of species, percentage area with change in cover) -Stress on site (number of operators using site) -Number of tourist watching key species (percentage success) -Number of rare or endangered species -Encroachment (percentage of park affected by unauthorized activity)
Existence of planning studies	-Number of studies related to land-use planning, environment and tourism

Source: Consulting and Audit Canada, 1995; Manning, 1996a; Tourism Concern, 1992; WTO, 1993; WTO, 1996a

The social and ecological factors are essential in shaping, transforming and preserving the ecosystem. Equally the human and biophysical elements are major



parts in the development and sustainability of an ecosystem.

For reaching an appropriate level of sustainable economic and social development, the following plans must be applied:

- 1)-An Ecosystem management plan (CEAC, 1991);
- 2)-A Visitors management plan (MacArther, 1998; Ross *et al.*, 1999);
- 3)-A Zoning and Land-use management plan (Curry, 1994; RDC, 1998a);
- 4)-A Site Operation management plan (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Fennell, 1999; Gunn, 1994; Johnson *et al.*, 1988).

#### 4.4.1 Ecosystem management plan

Ecosystem management has a major role in the organization of parks and protected areas. The Canadian Environmental Advisory Council (CEAC) defines this process as “*Integrated management of natural landscape, ecological processes, wildlife species and human activities, both within and adjacent to protected areas*” CEAC (1991:38). It involves regulating internal ecosystem structure and function to achieve socially desirable conditions in a chosen and not always static geographic setting. The usual array of the management activity is: 1)- the identification of issues through research, public involvement, and political analysis; 2)- Setting goals; 3)- Developing a plan; 4)-Using allocation; 5)- Developing activities (resources management, interpretation) and; 6)- Monitoring and evaluation.

Johnson and Agee (1988) argue that all of these activities are set in a *conceptual systems framework*. Where interagency coordination is often a key element of successful ecosystem management, but is not an end in itself. To him success in ecosystem management is ultimately measured by the goals achieved, not by the amount of co-ordination. Nelson (1993) on the other hand finds ecosystem management and human ecology interconnected and that human ecologists and biologists should find common ground. To him ecology can aid ecosystem management by:

- Creating a historical understanding of nature, humans and their interaction with the study area.



- Defining policies and institutions, perceptions, attitudes, values, technology;
- presenting the history spatially in terms of similarities and differences over space;
- Linking human studies to concepts or ideas that are the concern of other professionals, for example the concept of landscape, which has roots in architecture, geography, geology, and other fields such as biology and;
- Presenting historical understanding in terms that are meaningful and attractive to a wide range of citizens by drawing people to the human nature interface and the dynamics of ecosystem management, from a human perspective and to complement those people drawn to it from a biological or scientific perspective.

The application of human ecology principles to parks management is also found in the studies of Slocumbe and Nelson (1991) who identified a number of pressures that exist within parks and protected areas as a result of internal (illegal entry, removal of flora and fauna) and external (pollution, mining) threats. The studies covered three protected areas<sup>17</sup>. Eight management criteria were developed to assess and compare the parks, namely: *Access, Tourism, Resource extraction, Aboriginals' role, administration issues, scientific research, interpretation, and original interaction*. These experts concluded that there is a growing interest in the human ecological approaches to parks and protected areas as is the case in many regions around the world.

Another approach to managing, implementing and guiding this service industry was mainly dealt with by Fennell (1999) and Eagle (1992) who considered “the resource of tour” as the central focus of ecotourism, and that the “service industry” and the “visitors’ activities” are interconnected. For Fennell and Eagle the service industry includes Tour operation, Government policy/Community development, and Resource management and the visitors’ experience is based on Marketing, Visitor management and Visitor attitude.

Gunn (1994) evaluates the management not only from the visitors’ perspective,

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<sup>17</sup>Kluane National Park in Canada, Wrangell-St Elias National Park and reserve in the United States, and Kakadu National Park in Australia



but also from the community and the resource-base's point of view. He considered that ecotourism's success depends greatly upon integrated planning between the public and private sectors, if the objective of sustainable development is to be achieved.

#### 4.4.2 Visitors management plan

Visitors can cause a lot of damage to the natural environment of the site especially if they come in big numbers. To assure sustainability and success for the site a visitors' impact study is necessary. It is an essential part of the management process which assures long-term protection of the natural and cultural resources. In addition, the management guarantees the provision of tourist activities and experience and generates economic benefits for host communities. Visitor impacts and management studies are essential since they offer resources protection and conservation and at the same time offer recreation provision. Without these studies tourists can impose tremendous impacts on the natural, cultural and heritage components of the site. This generates a negative degree of satisfaction from the visitor's perspective.

According to Hall and others (1998: 108-10), the visitor management techniques available to managers of natural resources include: *firstly*, regulating access by area (i.e. zoning), access by transport (i.e. only pedestrian/foot paths), visitor numbers by group and size (i.e. Antarctica), visitation by visitor type (i.e. by pricing), visitor by behaviour (i.e. by codes of conduct), equipment (banning certain types of vehicles); *secondly*, implementing entry or user fees, *thirdly*, modifying the site; *fourthly*, undertaking market and visitor monitoring and research; *fifthly*, undertaking promotional marketing (i.e. advertise alternative destinations not under pressure); *sixthly*, providing interpretation programmes and facilities; *seventhly*, encouraging operators to seek alternative resources; and *eighthly*, concentrating on allowing accredited organisations to bring visitors to site.

The visitor management process reviews and monitors data as well as evaluates the success of management. It identifies problems and tries to find their cause,



proposes new strategies and finally, develops some recommendations to face present and future problems (Ross *et al.*, 1999).

#### 4.4.3 Zoning and land-use management plan

“Spatial function distinction” is the major concept in the zoning process of a site. It is “environment-tourism” oriented and focuses on special strategies. Some of the main strategies are the concentration and/ or dispersion of various functions, activities, facilities, and attractions. By adopting a concentration zoning strategy each type of activity will be placed in a separate zone. The tourist residence will be placed in one zone, the facilities in another and so on. Certain advantages can be achieved, some of which are efficient provision of infrastructure, ease in accessibility to and from one zone to the other, the control of negative impact on the surroundings region as well as better security for the tourists. With the use of GIS this process of land-use identification can be much easier. Such a tool facilitates the zoning of the region with respect to vulnerability of the soil and vegetation to human interferences (Pigram, 1999; Torkildsen, 1999).

Park zoning in general is an essential element in the planning and management of natural parks. Zones in the Canadian parks are established on the basis of natural resources and their need for protection, and capacity to absorb recreation involvement (Environment Canada 1990). The theoretical zoning process for such an approach is directed by the following guidelines:

*Zone 1: Special Preservation:* Specific areas or features, which deserve special safeguarding, because they contain or support unique, rare, endangered features, or the best examples of natural features. Access and use will be strictly controlled or may be prohibited altogether.

*Zone 2: Wilderness:* Extensive areas, which are good representations of each of the natural history themes of the park, and which will be maintained in a wilderness state. Only certain activities requiring limited primitive visitor facilities appropriate to a wilderness experience will be allowed. Limits will be placed on numbers of users. NO motorized access will be permitted. Management actions will ensure that visitors are dispersed.



*Zone 3: Natural Environment:* Areas that are maintained as natural environments, and which can sustain, with a minimum of impairment, a selected range of low-density outdoor activities with a minimum of related facilities. Non-motorized access will be preferred. Access by public transit will be permitted. Controlled access by private vehicles will be permitted only where it has traditionally been allowed in the past.

*Zone 4: Outdoors Recreation:* Limited areas that can accommodate a broad range of education, outdoor recreation opportunities and related facilities in ways that respect the natural landscape and that are safe and convenient. Motorized access will be permitted and may be separated from non-motorized access.

*Zone 5: Park Services:* Towns and visitors centres in certain existing national parks, which contain a concentration of visitor services and support facilities as well as park administration functions. Motorized access will be permitted.

*Zone 6: Tourism development area:* That includes restaurants, hotels, rural lodges, information centres and souvenir shops as well as some local markets, festivals and fairs areas.

In each of these zones, sub zoning is performed depending on the strategy that will be adopted. This zoning process is a primarily natural resource based activity. It does not define the types or levels of recreational opportunities that can occur within such regions or parks. An Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) should be carried out before any zoning can take place (see Appendix 19) (ARD, 2001).

On an international scale the Bruntland Commission (the World Commission on Environment and Development) in 1987, set a standard of 12 percent for all countries in terms of the amount of territory that needed to be established as parks and protected areas. Such a standard is believed to be a level that would ensure a degree of protection for all the earth's major physiographic regions. Canada's commitment to this standard came in the form of the Green Plan (Canada



Government, 1990; Canada Parliament, 1993). In the early 1990's the protected area in Canada represented between 6 and 7 per cent of the landscape (Rollins and Dearden and Rollins, 1993). The present Canadian park policy requires that at least one park be established within each of the 39 specific regions.

Certain agencies like the UNESCO and the IUCN have developed a process for aiding individual countries in the process of *identifying candidate natural areas*. Such agencies have categorized these areas in relation to the types of land-use and practice of conservation found in the countries. The IUCN (International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) has developed eleven categories for the classification of natural areas (see Appendix 5). The World Heritage Convention of 1972 (UNESCO) also supported the establishment of natural and cultural sites of outstanding universal value. The UNESCO approach does not impose management criteria on the existing parks, but adds an element of symbolism and prestige for the countries that maintain such sites. As of 1994, there were some 350 sites worldwide.

#### 4.4.4 Site operation plan

The site operation is an essential part of management. It is necessary that the site staff be trained in natural science, mainly ecology, biology, social and political science. It is also most important that the operators be trained in business, management and marketing studies. This is necessary since they will be managing the tourists (McKercher and Robbins, 1998b). It is important to enhance human resource management through the development of certain codes of practice for ecotourism operators, guides and natural area managers.

#### 4.4.5 Discussion

The purpose of an ecotourism site management process is to achieve a well-balanced development that takes into consideration the natural and socio-economic aspects of tourism. In this course of action the purpose is to administer all the available resources in order to meet the needs of the present tourist and the local communities while preserving, conserving and improving on the environmental, social and economic values in a long-term approach.



A Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) is a major step in developing ecotourism management for a region. It assesses the region's *social, cultural, and physical* characteristics while doing a survey on the region's economic and environmental assets. It assures the involvement of local residents in decision making through interaction and participation. This carrying capacity refers to the maximum use of any site without causing negative effects on the resources, or exerting adverse impact upon ecosystem, society, economy and culture of the area. But in all the ecotourism management strategies there are negative impacts that could affect the major components of a site. To value the negative impact on the ecological/physical aspects, there is a carrying capacity which relates the natural environment, to the level of visitations from the tourists or the amenities they require. Beyond an acceptable number of visits, and due to unplanned tracking paths, negative ecological impacts could occur like change in the mating habits of certain animals, soil erosion and endangering endemic plants (Harroun, 1995; WTO, 1993).

For the negative impact on the “society” and “culture” there is a Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) that is related primarily to the effect on the host population and its culture. It is very difficult to provide objective measures especially for moral issues such as emotional feelings and attitudes of both tourists and hosts. Negative impact on the visitors and local people might occur due to over-commercialization, overcrowding or bad services. This might generate dissatisfaction that could render the tourist intolerable with respect to the indigenous people and vice versa (Cooper *et al.*, 1998).

The use of the Carrying Capacity Assessment method (CCA) at an early stage of the project is very important in order to define the limitations beyond which a resource is over-used, and thus can avoid negative impacts on the physical (environmental), socio-cultural, economic, aesthetic, and psychological components (see Figure 4.1) while the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) compliments the CCA by focusing more on the recreational activities that are appropriate within the area destined for ecotourism (see Figure 4.2). The CCA is accompanied by an Environmental Impact Assessment study (EIA) that can cover variables such as number of species in the flora and fauna, levels of pollution in



the air, water and soil and others (Kozlowski, 1990) (see Figure 4.1 and Appendices 6 and 19).

Finally, a successful ecotourism management plan can be achieved by merging the physical and cultural elements with the tourism attractions, services and infrastructure resources in a framework. It should apply a CCA and an LAC that would preserve the cultural and physical assets that are the foundation of a sustainable ecotourism management approach. In doing so this plan would generate income for the locals through creating jobs like selling local products, artefacts, souvenirs, operating country lodges and other services.

On the other hand economic satisfaction to the local people reflects positively on their heritage which is considered a sustainable source of income. This can be reached through an adaptation that is based on the feeling that the species with which the local population share ecosystems have inherent value in themselves. These species are judged on the basis of their ability to provide them with financial resources and are important elements within the complex system. In this respect Consulting and Audit Canada (1995), Manning (1996b), Tourism Concern (1992) and many others suggested certain key site development and management recommendations, indicators and measures to achieve sustainable ecotourism that are used for the management of a site and are classified in Appendix 6 (Consulting and Audit Canada, 1995; Manning, 1996a; Tourism Concern, 1992).

#### **4.5 National Parks a source for ecotourism development**

In countries around the world national parks are broadly mandated with the purpose of protecting natural areas of significance, and encouraging public understanding, appreciation and enjoyment of nature. Their major focus is to develop recreational use and protect the unique physiographic land and water features. In the early establishment of parks, the preservation approach was not fully developed. However, the “natural reserves” approach became more integrated with the parks management strategy for the protection of the parks natural and cultural assets. Equally the managers of parks have realised that the parks are not ecological islands, and must be managed according to sustainable environmental and social conditions both inside and outside their boundaries



(Butler and Boyd, 2000; Dearden, 1991).

National parks fall within four major categories: Biosphere sites, Marine reserves, RAMSAR sites and World Heritage sites. The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) that was held in New Delhi, India in 1969 identified three essential characteristics and requirements for the achievement of a national park and which are:

- *First*, the site should have one or a set of ecosystems that are not materially altered by human exploitation and occupation. The area should have plants and animal species, geomorphologic sites and habitats of special scientific, educative and recreational interest and contains a natural landscape of great beauty.
- *Second*, the authorities should implement steps to eliminate the exploitation and occupation in the whole area and to enforce effectively the respect of ecological, geomorphologic or aesthetic features which have led to its establishment.
- *Third*, the local management of the site must develop a group of special inspirational, educative, cultural and recreational themes for the park's visitations (van Osten, 1972).

#### 4.5.1 Yellowstone national park

The first national park was declared in the USA in 1872 where the authorities in the Yellowstone withdrew more than one million acres of land as a national park or “pleasure–grounds” for the benefit and enjoyment of the people, in an attempt to endorse the cultural and natural values of societies by protecting certain areas of the landscape from the market forces that tend to destroy them. Such values can be summarized as *aesthetic, historical, recreational, spiritual, tourism, educational, ecological benchmarks and ecological capital and its protection process* (Sax, 1980; Lemons, 1987; Rolston, 1994; Dearden, 1995; Wright, 1996).

A major reason for the establishment of the park was the growing need for a space for relaxation which could take many forms, such as enjoying the scenery, painting, writing, scientific exploration, hunting, fishing, mountaineering, or



simply travelling by train to see the splendour of nature (the park benefited from the presence of a railroad network that provided not only initial access to the park but also the necessary tourism infrastructure within the park for the first tourist i.e. the elite society). Another reason for the creation of this park was to identify economic benefits that can be achieved through the development of tourism to the area especially with the introduction of the railroad, which facilitated accessibility to the remote region.

The early market for this park was the rich European who was looking for exotic travel to new wilderness in search for a variety of activities such as “big-game hunting” (Huth, 1972; Nash, 1967; Shephard, 1967). This park is considered as the first and oldest in North America. It benefited from early park management legislations mainly the Antiquity Act of 1906 (8 June), which gave presidential authority to proclaim and reserve landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures and other objects of historic and scientific interest<sup>18</sup>.

The National Park Service Act of 1916 set a mandate for conserving the scenery and natural and historic objects and the wildlife therein and to provide for enjoyment of the area in such a manner as to leave it unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations (Zinser, 1995). The Act confirmed the dual mandate of parks, namely the conservation of park resources as well as providing for the enjoyment of the public. It established the basis for a debate between protection and use, a conflict that continues to exist today. The Act brought into being the National Park Service (NPS). Under the Act, the NPS took charge of the affairs of the existing park units, both national parks and national monuments, to protect the park resources from utilitarian conservation interests.

There was no common management structure that existed to ensure that the park would be protected from other resource users, no single budget was formed and poor relations existed between units within the parks’ system. From the early days of the National Park Service’s existence, its directors focused on the development

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<sup>18</sup>The powers under the Act of (29 June 1906) were responsible for the establishment of almost a quarter of the national park systems that exist in the USA today. Based on the Antiquities Act of 1906 new units were established within the system that are entitled “national monuments” “historical”, “recreational” and “natural” in addition to the already existing “national parks”.



of infrastructure such as roads and hotels to encourage travel, along with programmes of park interpretations, and education to visitors. They permitted cars within parks, and private concessionaires in order to provide a range of accommodation from camps to luxury hotels. They also set down guidelines regarding appropriate types of recreation for the parks (Isle, 1961).

In 1933 the US National Park system developed a single national federal system of park lands that comprises historic and natural places and is divided into three basic groups:

- Parks that had natural value (national parks are included in this category);
- Parks that had historic value;
- Parks that had recreational value (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Ise, 1961; Zinser, 1995).

In response to an increase in the number of visitors and based on the new tourism and leisure demand on parks, a “Mission 66 programme” was launched in 1956. It was a ten years programme that aimed at upgrading the national parks’ facilities. Between 1951 and 1972 an additional 100 new units were added to the system: 56 were historical, 32 recreational and twelve natural. Under the Mission 66 programme, aspects such as capacity and recreational use within national parks were reviewed in the light of concerns that if the trends of the 1950’s were to continue at an annual rate of 15 to 25 per cent many recreational facilities would be destroyed by overuse (Clawson, 1959; the ORRRC, 1962).

In 1964 a National Wilderness Act to establish reserves that are absent of human occupancy was passed. This demonstrated the federal government’s attitude to use of back-country areas as a passive recreational use and a mechanism for future “natural reserves” expansion (Nelson, 1982). The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) (1962) issued a multi-volume report. One of its major outcomes was the establishment of a “zoning system” to allocate land to different classes of use based on the nature and intensity of demand and the land character (Nelson, 1982). Other institutional arrangements were introduced in the 1960’s and included the introduction of public participation in the form of public hearings in the development of master planning and management of national parks.



This approach was considered as a “control mechanism” of the national park’s development (Nelson, 1976). Even though the USA has been a leader in acquiring a variety of units for the parks’ systems it was not until 1972 that a National Park System Plan was officially published. By the end of 1990 the National Park System in the USA comprised a total of 357 units (Slocome *et al.*, 1992; Zinser, 1995). In 1975 the USA policy has been revised to be more in line with *preservation* and *management planning* approaches which ensures a recreational use that does not threaten scenic beauty and wildlife. This management policy has not changed since 1988.

#### 4.5.2 Discussion

Some researchers like Butler (1998) and Chase (1987) acknowledged a situation of crisis in the national parks in the United States. They concluded that national parks in their current form are not sufficient to remain effective in the future due to their rigid “top-down” planning and management approaches. As a result the establishment of wilderness lands for protection has become self-defeating because poachers and adjacent farmers are slowly consuming its landscape. A preferable approach would be to view the national park as an agent to social and economic change, where local people would become stakeholders within the park and their social and economic activities such as ecotourism, and farming would be part of the ecological sustainability of the park (Blunden, 1990; Butler and Boyd, 2000; Chase, 1987).

#### 4.5.3 The first national park in Canada

In Canada the declaration of the first national park was a little behind the USA. This started by accident when engineers working for the Canadian Pacific Railroad discovered the hot springs in Banff. The locals’ attempts to commercialize the hot springs resulted in the establishment of a federal reserve of 10 square miles around the hot springs in 1885 and Banff’s National Park was created. The legislative language for the creation of Banff National Park was similar to that of Yellowstone National Park (Lothian, 1977). Preservation of the hot springs and economic gain from tourism and recreational opportunity, pleasure and enjoyment for the Canadians were of equal importance. The actual



establishment of the national park was accompanied by an expansion of an area of 260 square miles. By 1930 fourteen national parks were declared in Canada. The increase in car ownership was one of the major causes of increase in visits to the parks.

A number of Acts had important implications on the development of the early Canadian Parks. The 1883 Dominion Lands Act placed the management of public lands under the auspices of the Minister of the Interior and allowed government to reserve the forest lands and forest parks in a state of preservation. In 1911 The Dominion Forest Reserves and Park Act developed a strong preservation tone and provided a strong legislative tool to the protection of large areas from mining and timber activities (Nelson, 1976; Markle, 1975). Other developments also took place during this period, the most important of which are *first*, the handing over of the government's control of the natural resources within the crown (federal) lands to the individual provinces and the *second*, was defining the function of the Canadian National Parks as follows: "The Parks are dedicated to the people of Canada for their benefit, education and enjoyment, subject to the provisions of the Acts and Regulations, and such that parks shall be maintained and made use of as to leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations ( from Butler and Boyd, 2000, as quoted in Lothian, 1977, p.8)". Such developments led the way to the emergence of a dual mandate between protection and use.

The 1911 Dominion Forest Reserves and Parks Act was mainly established to oversee the management of all the Canadian National Parks, and to establish a "National Parks System". Between 1911 and 1936 the first park commissioner was assigned and asked to promote preservation and a state of wilderness to the parks as well as to recognize the potential of having a recreational development within the parks which in return would provide for the interest and funding for the development of the Canadian National Park System (Nelson, 1976). In the 1960s an early form of zoning for winter activities in Banff started to develop and by the early 1970s a more comprehensive zoning scheme was developed within Canadian Parks where land-use priorities were allocated to different areas of the parks (Murphy, 1985).



This approach provided for a broad framework for land management which is trying to balance the twin mandates of preservation and visitor enjoyment by setting aside some areas primarily for preservation purposes and others for recreation and visitors facilities. Also, in terms of management other institutional arrangements were introduced in the 1960s and included the introduction of public hearings in the form of public participation in master planning for the national parks (Nelson, 1976).

The first official policy to classify areas as *natural*, *historical* and *recreational* zones in the National Park System plan was introduced in 1964 and was based on physiographic regions (Park Canada, 1966). In this plan terrestrial natural regions were identified and evaluated as potential sites for future parks management, to achieve representation of all regions (Eidsvik, 1983). Prior to the issuing of this “policy system approach” each park was managed separately. Now and according to this plan they all work as a whole. By the early 1960s a specific management plan was developed for each of the Canadian Parks and public participation (in the form of public hearings) was used as a principle mechanism to control the development within parks (Nelson, 1976).

A more elaborate Canadian National Park System was introduced at a later stage whereby terrestrial natural regions were identified and evaluated as potential sites for future park management, to achieve representation of all regions (Eidsvik, 1983). An Environmental Assessment and a Review Process (EARP) was set out in 1973 and necessitated of Environmental Assessment (EIA) prior to the establishment of new parks. Also a new policy for the Canadian Parks was introduced in 1994. It emphasized preserving the ecological integrity through the implementation of the amendments of the 1989 National Park’s Act, where “ecosystem-based management” and “protection plans” within parks are developed for each individual park (Canada Parliament, 1993; Parks Canada, 1994). Such plans follow a new thinking and policy that focuses on heritage and potential within parks where ecological integrity takes priority over use for the purpose of attaining a sustainable form of tourism. Such an aspect has important implications on the long-term expansion and development of the park system (Butler and Boyd, 2000).



#### 4.5.4 Discussion

Parks have come to rely on tourism as a means to generate income from growing world population with increasing recreational time, financial well-being, and personal mobility (WTO, 1996b; 2002). National parks must protect the natural areas of significance, encourage public understanding, appreciation and enjoyment, as well as develop a source of income for the local communities (Wright, 1996; WTO, 1983). There are major causes for ineffective management of parks that are based on: a rigid institutional structure of the national parks (the concept of the parks and their policy); the polarization of power by the park authorities; the disagreement, lack of trust and miscommunication between local people and park authorities; the risk and uncertainty in entering into discussions aimed at reducing conflict; the absence of opportunity for all to participate in the decision-making process; and the large number of different stakeholders in the park (Hough, 1988; Kuss *et al.*, 1990; Lemons, 1987; Lovejoy, 1992; Markle, 1975; Nelson, 1982; 1993; Zinser, 1995). Equally Park managers are faced with a number of pressures such as:

- Fertilizer use that infiltrates the park environment from adjacent land;
- The temptation of local people to use park resources and self-serving political interests that influence park management;
- Overpopulation and the increased tourist visitations (Eidsvik, 1983; Federation of Nature and National Parks of Europe, 1993; Lovejoy, 1992; Hough, 1988).

Yellowstone National Park is a clear example of a “top-down” approach that is based on an Antiquity Act in 1906 which has given presidential authority to expropriate and conserve landmarks, historic and prehistoric and other objects of historic and scientific interest. The authorities of the park were criticized by the tourism industry for being negligent, especially in respect of fires. Certain problems were raised between the local populations and the park for instance the restrictions of access to traditionally used resources, and the disturbance of local cultures and economies by tourists that led to hostility, resentment and damage to the park property (Pigram, 1999; Nelson, 1993; Zinser, 1995).



In Canada the “top-down” approach was also evident by the 1883 Dominion Lands Act that placed the management of public lands under the auspices of the Minister of Interior and allowed the government to reserve the forest lands and forests parks in a state of preservation. At a later stage community participation in the form of public hearings for the development of parks’ master plans were introduced and the management strategy was lately revised to be more in line with preservation and management planning to ensure a recreational use that does not threaten scenic beauty and wildlife.

A major change has occurred in Canada as was clearly shown in the Canadian Parks Act in 1988 that gave priority to the ecological functioning of parks over recreational activity, whereby Park authorities aimed to eliminate exploitation and occupation through the implementation of an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) (see Appendix 19). The park authorities tried to protect the ecological, geomorphologic and aesthetic features which are the major reasons for the creation of the park. The local management of the sites have developed a group of special inspirational, educative, cultural and recreational themes for the park’s visitations.

In the USA and Canada a strong debate between protection of the park’s natural and cultural resources and recreational use (mainly the increase in number of visitors) was developed. “Comprehensive zoning schemes” were developed and priorities were allocated to different areas of the parks in an attempt to balance the twin mandates of preservation and visitor enjoyment. Ecosystem management and protection plans were introduced to assure that ecological integrity takes priority. Also, public hearings were initiated to involve local people in the day-to-day needs and requirements of the parks. In this respect the managers were slowly introducing visitors, land-use, and eco- management plans to direct the parks and to fulfil the park users’ needs.

#### **4.6 Profiling the park’s end user**

It is vital to classify eco-tourists being the park’s end user. This is done on the basis of their expectations from ecotourism. This process helps the planners and managers understand the needs of such tourists and to try and satisfy them.



Lindberg (1991) identified four basic types of eco-tourists: 1)-*Hard-core* nature tourists: scientific researchers or members of tours specially designated for education, improvement of the environment and similar purposes; 2)-*Dedicated* nature tourists: people who take trips specially to see protected areas and who want to understand local natural and cultural history; 3)-*Mainstream* nature tourists: people who visit the Amazon, the Rwanda gorilla park, or other destination primarily to take an unusual trip; and 4)-*Casual* nature tourists: people who experience nature incidentally as part of broader trip (See Appendix 7).

Kusler (1991) on the other hand classified the eco-tourists on the basis of setting, experience and group dynamics. He typified them as belonging to three main groups: *Do-it yourself eco-tourists*: This group composes the majority of the three categories and has the flexibility and mobility in terms of accommodation, experience, sites and settings; *Eco-tourists on tours*: This group requires a well-organised tour, and travels to exotic destinations (e.g. Antarctica); *School groups or scientific groups*: This group is mainly involved in scientific research of an organisation or individual; often stay in the same region for extensive periods of time, and are willing to endure harsher site conditions than other eco-tourists.

Fennell and Smale (1992) directly compared the average Canadian tourist against a sample of eco-tourists (based on the work of Fennell 1990). They used results from a Canadian study (Tourism Attitude and Motivation Study (CTAMS)). Seventy-seven surveys were taken to analyse the general attitudes and expectations for a sample of 11,501 Canadian eco-tourists' who had recently returned from a Costa Rica ecotourism trip between 1988 and 1990.

The survey focused on the Canadian eco-tourist's response with respect to: experiencing new and different lifestyles; trying new foods; being physically active; visiting historical places; seeing as much as possible; being daring and adventurous; meeting people with similar interests. The *important attractions* that were used by the survey were: Wilderness areas; Rural areas; Mountains; Lakes and streams; Historical sites and parks; Cultural activities; and Oceanside.



The survey questioned the average Canadian tourist's response with respect to: Watching sports; Visiting friends and relatives; Doing nothing at all; Being together as a family; Reviving past goods; Visiting places the family originally came from; feeling at home away from home; and Having fun and being entertained. The *important attractions* that were used for this survey were based on the following *variables*: Indoor sports; Amusement and theme parks; Nightlife and entertainment; Gambling; Shopping; Resort area; Big cities; Beaches for swimming/sunning; Predictable weather; and Live theatre and musicals (Fennell and Smale, 1992).

Eagles (1992) did a similar survey. His results were similar to those of Fennell and Smale. He concluded that ecotourists are fundamentally different in their travel motivations from the average traveller. Trunball (1981), however, provided an interesting argument against such an approach. He suggested that although on the surface nature tourists are travelling to Africa to see the wildlife, there is a deeper reason hidden in their subconscious, which is the term "Africa". He thought that the visitors want to dig into the past where the humans used to have stronger relationship with the animals and the natural setting. They seek to find an inseparable natural unity of components between both humans and animals. Unfortunately what they see is an unorganised man-made safari, devoid of the herders and hunters who used to live there as an indispensable part of the eco-system.

The surveys demonstrated that there is indeed a difference between the eco-tourists and general travellers in terms of their trip-related needs and focus. The eco-tourists were found to pursue attractions related to the outdoors (wilderness areas, parks and protected areas, and rural areas), while attractions related to cities and resorts were more important to the average Canadian traveller. As for the evaluation of the tourist and the eco-tourist as a set of components, classifications and indicators, these are summarised in Appendix 7.

#### **4.7 Conclusion**

The research concludes that ecotourism is a service industry that depends directly on natural, socio-cultural and landscape resources. It is associated with operators,



running nature-oriented group tours and individuals who use natural and cultural resources for the purpose of enjoying, experiencing and learning about the natural and socio-culture environment (rural and farm tourism) of the region. It involves nature, adventure, education, culture and agriculture in the spirit of appreciation, participation and sensibility. The milieu of ecotourism is ecological and socio-cultural and is composed of scenery, wild plants and animals (biodiversity, natural habitat and species), landscape and stepped terraces, wetlands, wildlife reserves (protected fauna and flora), salt and fresh water features, indigenous rural, social and cultural heritage manifestations (agricultural, religious and cultural practices, festivals and monuments), and local history, which are part of the whole ecosystem. A variety of theories and definitions related to ecotourism showed that there are many variables that differentiate one type of tourism from the other, mainly the soft-path ecotourism and the hard-path one.

Ecotourism development is sustainable if a Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) and Limits of acceptable Change (LAC) evaluation approach are sequentially applied to the area on which it is applied. It contributes to the conservation, maintenance and economic well-being of the local residents through creating job opportunities. Ecotourism generates jobs in the form of light industry such as souvenirs, art and craft, wine products as well as restaurants, and lodges and agricultural products. In this respect it makes a direct contribution that enhances the indigenous peoples' status and makes them value and protect their wildlife heritage area, it being their main source of income. Ecotourism also comprises enforcing regulations and land management as well as the community's development. It includes moral values such as responsible acts and ethics. It takes account of the participation of the local people in the decision-making process concerning the kind and the amount of tourism that should occur as well as other issues.

Ecotourism can enhance or endanger the educational, social and cultural abilities of the local communities through interaction with other international societies. It can make a short or a long-term financial profit for the locals depending on the policy that will be applied. As previously discussed, CCA and LAC planning and management approaches help the development process becomes more sustainable



in terms of preserving the natural and cultural assets. It assures the participation of the local communities in the planning and management process of the area involved but reduces the economic gain since it focuses more on quality rather than on quantity in terms of the supply of services. This profit lifts the local standard of living, reduces unemployment and migration and generates an incentive for the community to enhance its status. As for the tourist the goal behind this type of activity is to achieve an educational, recreational, cultural, and/or an adventurous sense of satisfaction without harming the environment.

For ecotourism to succeed the local government, municipality, local community and the NGOs must be involved in decision making while following “middle ground” between a “top-down” and a “bottom-up” approach. There should also be enforcement of the rules and regulations, and a long-term sustainable management policy that is clearly adopted by the Government. A minimum negative impact from ecotourism on the environment, culture and local society plus a major positive role in the sustainability of development and conservation must be achieved. In order to reduce the negative impact on the area, a carrying capacity study should be carried out at an early stage and should be updated on a continuous basis.

Concerning sustainability, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) has adopted principles for sustainable tourism development that are mainly based on the *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development Cooperation* that was held in 1998. They focused on creating a healthy and productive life in harmony with nature; the conservation, protection and restoration of the earth's ecosystem; sustainable production and consumption; international trade and travel services on a sustainable basis; environmental protection; planning decisions being adopted at local level; creation of employment for women and indigenous peoples to the fullest extent; tourism development that recognize and support the identity, culture and interests of indigenous people; the respect of international laws protecting the environment.

Ecotourism experiences a tremendous degree of fragmentation by virtue of the fact that consistency in sustainability is not likely to be found across all sectors. The solution to achieving sustainability is mainly reached by ensuring that the



major sectors of this industry i.e. (natural and cultural attractions, facilities, accommodations and transportation) are working in harmony and that the human and the physical elements work in the context of these major sectors. Ecotourism's success and sustainability depends greatly upon integrated planning between the public and the private sectors, and that sustainability has to be more than simply one aspect of the industry working on long-term basis.

Finally, the research reasons that it is very important that the government and the local community work hand in hand to develop a "site management framework" based on a set a clear policy of rules, regulations, guidelines, principles and indicators. The purpose of this framework would be to preserve, conserve and assure sustainability for this industry. It is also essential to find the proper way to implement and enforce such policy while taking into consideration the many factors previously mentioned and in particular the governance variables that might render it very difficult to apply. This process of ecotourism development is relatively new. Safety measures must be made concerning the negative social, economic and environmental trends that it might generate.



**5 Cévennes National Park case study in France**



## 5.1 Introduction

The research requires a detailed case study that deals with rural exodus to answer the research question. Since Lebanon and its neighbouring Middle Eastern countries do not have this opportunity, it was essential to search for a case study in other Mediterranean countries that share common environmental, social and economic similarities with Lebanon (UNEP, 1997; Van Osten, 1972; Wright, 1996; WTO, 1996b). France was found to be the most appropriate country. Like Lebanon, France is a major tourism market-destination. It is located on the Mediterranean and has faced rural depopulation (WTO, 1999, 2003). Since the 12<sup>th</sup> century France has been directly involved with the Lebanese (Mount Lebanon) social, political and economic affairs and is one of the founders of the present Lebanon and its constitutions<sup>19</sup> (Salibi, 1988; Ziadeh, 1957).

Lebanon was mandated by France from 1921 to 1945 and still requests France's support in developing and updating its laws, regulations and planning schemes. Furthermore it has a lot of similarities to France in terms of culture, political system, laws, regulations and planning procedures (Hourani, 1946; Saadeh, 1976). France encompasses many national parks that have a history in natural and cultural resource management. One of these national parks is the Cévennes which overlooks the Mediterranean Sea (see Figure 5.1) (ARADEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001; Giran, 2003).

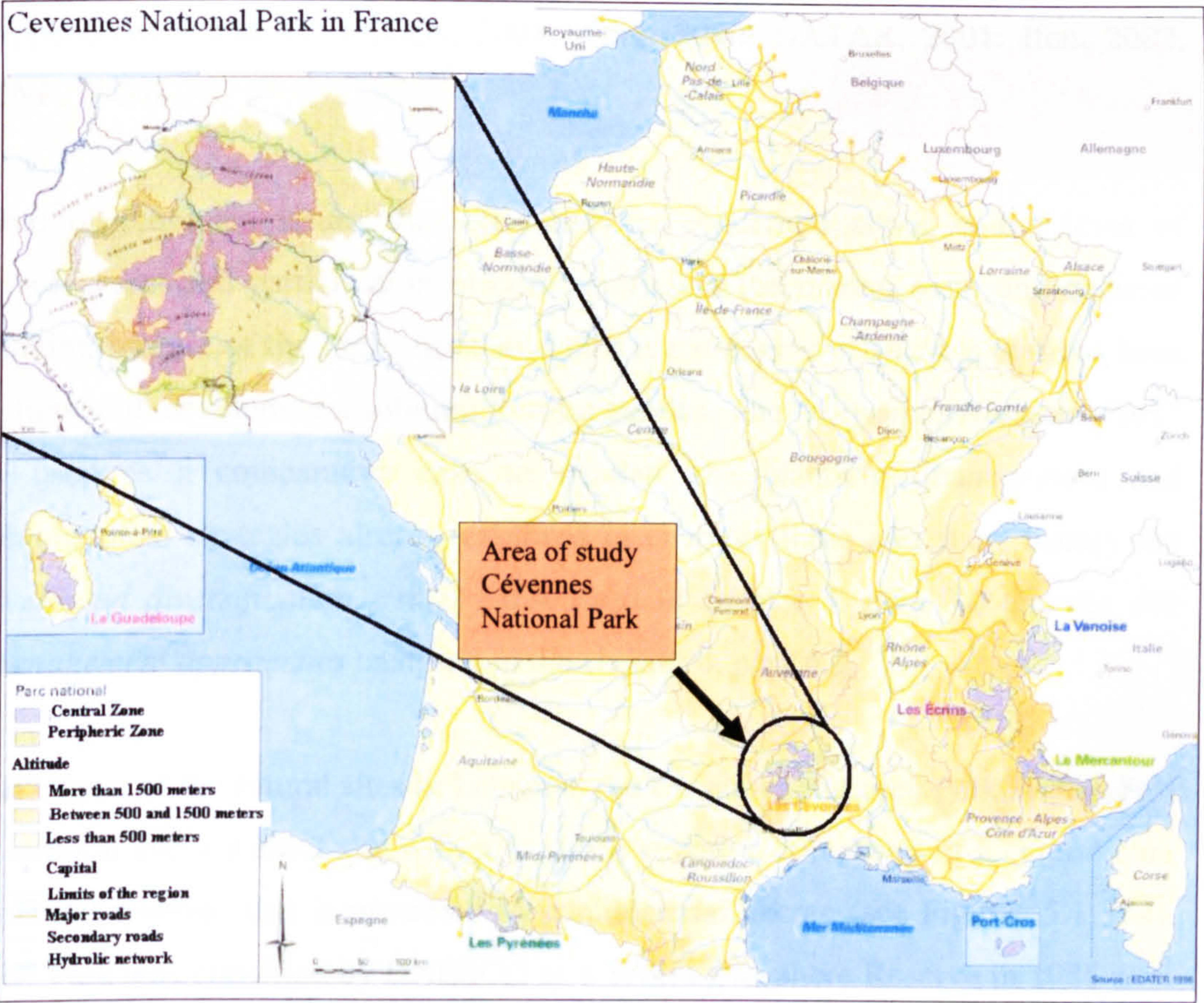
This chapter seeks to validate ecotourism and sustainable rural livelihood development through "The Cévennes National Park". According to the Park administrators the development of the Park follows a management approach that balances the needs of man and that of nature. It involves all local partners, mainly farmers, foresters, craftsman, professionals and officials. The chapter uses a deductive approach to validate the concept on which the Park was created. The research also examines the problems the site is facing and questions the degree of success that the Park has reached in combating poverty and reducing out migration (PNC, 2000; Giran, 2003).

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<sup>19</sup> Based on the French Napoleon law.



**Figure 5.1 The Cévennes National Park in France**



Source: ATLAS, 2000

**5.2 Reason for the selection of the Cévennes National Park**

The Cévennes National Park is selected as a pilot case study because it has many social, economic, administrative and physical resemblances to the selected Qadisha-Cedars case study in Lebanon. In the mid forties the Cévennes region faced major depopulation. The declaration of the Cévennes National Park in 1971 was seen by the managers of the Park as a way of reducing out-migration (see Appendices 1 and 2). Since 1975 the population of the Park has continuously increase at a rate of 2% to reach more than 41,000 residents in 1999 (Atlas, 2000). Serious efforts are being made by the local management team to develop a sustainable development policy that is based on the recommendations and guidelines set by local Agenda 21 discussed in chapter 3 paragraph 3.3. These efforts are clearly mentioned in the last version of the “Programme d’aménagement du Parc national des Cévennes 2000-2006”, and in the “European



charter for sustainable tourism in the protected areas” that was adopted by the Park in 2002. Actually the Park receives more than 800,000 tourists per year (see Appendices 9 and 11) (ATEN, 2001; Atlas, 2000; DATAR, 2001; Ifen, 2002; CNP, 2000).

One of the main issues that this study is concerned about is the level of involvement and participation of communities in the management and decision making process of the Park. Another factor is the degree of success that has been achieved in developing a solution to rural exodus. The “*Cévennes National Park*” is used as a comparative case to validate the planning, management and development strategies already explored in chapters three and four, mainly the *livelihood diversification strategy* discussed in chapter 3, para 3.6 and the *site management approaches* analysed in the chapter 4, para 4.3.

Like most of the natural sites in Lebanon, the Cévennes National Park is classified a cultural and a natural site with a land-use structure composed of a central core “natural reserve” that is protected by a ministerial decree (see Figures 5.1; 5.4). The Park was classified by UNESCO as a World Biosphere Reserve in 1985 as is the case with many natural and cultural sites in Lebanon. Similar to the Lebanese regulations set for the natural reserves, the Cévennes National Park is subject to a “strict protection implementation plan”<sup>20</sup>. It has a geographical location that is in proximity to the urban area, and is preserving the rural and natural reserve’s characteristics in the mid mountain. It is also inhabited by communes that live permanently in it and rely on the advantages brought about by the Park for their long-term development (see Figures 5.1). Since 1976 five site management programmes have been developed. The last plan and strategy for the Park was developed in the year 2000 for duration of five years and is actually under implementation (Al-Shouf Cedars Nature Reserve Publications, 2003; ATEN, 2001; CNP, 2000) (see Appendix 12).

Open ended interviews accompanied by a series of probe questions were made with the assistant director, the head of communication and discovery services, and the head of the tourism mission (see Chapter 2 para 2.3.3). These questions



revealed the existence of political pressures that cause deviation in the natural conservation trend and policy of the Park and results in illegal practices<sup>21</sup>. The head of communication and discover services of the Park indicated that only recently a bottom-up strategy which is based on Agenda 21's sustainable development programme is being implemented by the administrators (Appendices 1 and 13). Meanwhile, the management team, with the help of local farmers and investors, is trying to develop a partnership policy that is based on a series of workshops, general assemblies and forums on sustainable tourism in the Cévennes National Park (DATAR, 2001). The aim of these activities is to get an answer on how to satisfy the locals' economic and social needs.

Like the Qadisha-Cedars, the Cévennes National Park is in close proximity to the southern Mediterranean basin that attracts around 30 percent of the international tourism arrivals<sup>22</sup>, and is considered one of the main tourist destinations in the world where positive growth rates have been recorded<sup>23</sup> (see Figures 5.1 and tables 5.1 and 5.2). On the other hand, forecasts of tourist flows in the world suggested that regardless of some structural changes (mostly in the quality of tourist supply), and further segmentation of the tourist market, the upward trend of tourism in the Mediterranean basin will continue (Hyeres-Les-Palmiers, 1993; WTO, 2002).

Since the southern Mediterranean coastal region of France continues to be a major destination for international tourism, it is seen as a major source of revenue. In this respect the research found that there is so far no clear strategy by the managers of the Park to attract coastal tourists. This is one of the research requirements that is missing and could have helped in visualising a method and an approach to render the Qadisha-Cedars a tourism destination. The tourism management strategy requires proper infrastructure, political stability and good economic and environmental setting (Davies *et al.*, 1991; Euro-Mediterranean Conference, 1995; Hyeres-Les-Palmiers, 1993; Plan Bleu, 1977).

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<sup>20</sup> Contrary to the Regional Park approach, which is only governed by a "code of good conduct"?

<sup>21</sup> Permit for the operation of quarries and mines in some peripheral regions of the park.

<sup>22</sup> Between 1981 and 1991, the number of foreign tourist arrivals to the Mediterranean increased from 110 to 139 million, the average annual rate of increase being 2.4%. Over the same period, the income for the area from international tourism was increased more rapidly at an average rate of 9.6% (Eurostat, 2000; WTO, 1993).

<sup>23</sup> The bulk of foreign tourist traffic (over 90%) goes to the European coasts of the basin. Only a small percent of the tourist traffic has been effectuated in the countries of Africa (6.4%), and parts of the Mediterranean.



**Table 5.1 International tourism arrivals and receipts**

Region	Arrivals in million		Receipts in billion US \$	
	2004	2005	2004	2005
World	766	808	633	682
Europe	424.5	441.6	328.2	347.4
Souther/Mediter.EU.	149.5	158.0	130	139.824
Middle East	36.3	39.7	25.5	28.6

Source: World Tourism Organisation (WTO) 2006

**Table 5.2 International tourism arrivals and receipts to some Mediterranean countries**

Country	International Arrivals in million 2004	International Arrivals in million 2005	Receipt in billion US\$ in 2004	Receipt in billion US\$ in 2005
France	75.1	76.0	40.8	42.3
Spain	52.4	55.6	45.2	47.9
Italy	37.1	36.5	35.7	35.4
Turkey	16.8	20.3	15.9	18.2
Israel	1.506	1.903	2.5	2.842
Lebanon	1.278	1.140	Not Available	Not Available

Source: World Tourism Organisation (WTO) 2006

A series of meetings with some farmers, property owners and developers who live in the peripheral part of the Park revealed dissatisfaction with respect to the management’s performance for the following reasons. The first is the administration’s inability to develop an effective promotion policy to attract more tourists to the Park and to invest in appropriate infrastructure and public transportation systems that would help develop tourism and ecotourism activities in the region. The second reason is the management team’s deficiencies in helping the farmers find national or international markets for their products. This has resulted in mistrust between locals and management, and imposed a negative impact on the sustainability and long-term development process of the Park (ARADEL, 1999; Giran, 2003).

**5.3 Development of rural areas in France**

As most of the national parks in Europe including France, are located in rural areas, it is important at this level to comprehend the strategies that the EU applies to enhance rural livelihood. The Council of Europe (1996) as per the *Charter for Rural Areas* has employed the term “Rural Area” to denote a stretch of inland or coastal countryside that includes small towns and villages with non-urban recreation zones and natural reserves.



The main part of this area is used for agriculture, forestry, aquaculture and fisheries in addition to other activities and services, such as light industry, art crafts, lodging and ecotourism<sup>24</sup>. There is a difference in defining “rural” from one country to another. This has to do with the dissimilarity in terms of each country or region’s culture, functional requirements and physical parameters. Nevertheless many national governments use the population density settlements as major specific criteria for defining “rurality”<sup>25</sup>. (Lane, 1994a, 1994b; Marsden *et al.*, 1993; OECD, 1994; Hoggart *et al.*, 1995; Robinson, 1990; Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997:13).

The EU LEADER program (Liaison Entre Actions pour la Développement des Economies Rurales), has identified a diversity of socio-economic situations for the classification of rural areas in Europe. Such areas should be located in peri-urban locations where agriculture employs a sizable portion of the working population and still forms the basis of the economy. It should be rich in labour-intensive agriculture practices with traditional large-scale landholdings and natural or protected land. The rural region must be geared towards tourism with a large number of small-scale facilities. Furthermore, the population has to be predominantly elderly, needs welfare assistance and have a large portion of second homes and/or residential homes (Farrell and Thirion, 2000).

As for the development of tourism in rural areas Farrell and Thirion (2000) acknowledged that the following major detailed requirements should be satisfied:

- *Firstly*, the area must have a highly consolidated identity and have close ties between the various local business sectors and social structure.
- *Secondly*, the business must incorporate small, family-run facilities and cottage industry of small and medium size enterprises to supply local markets, including tourism.

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<sup>24</sup>The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (1994) defines a rural area at two levels; local and regional. On a local level the rural area is defined as a geographic district with a population density of 150 persons per square kilometer whereas at the regional level they are grouped as per their density of population and are divided into three categories: 1)-predominantly rural; 2)-significantly rural; and 3)-predominantly urbanized (OECD, 1994).

<sup>25</sup> Many European countries such as France, England and Wales, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Switzerland consider “rural” any parish or settlement of less than 10,000 people.



- *Thirdly*, a large portion of the networking population must be involved in tourism.
- *Fourthly*, construction restrictions must be implemented on buildings, infrastructure and housing.
- *Fifthly*, considerable community control must be exerted over the use of natural resources and tourists' numbers and visits to natural sites.

### 5.3.1 Discussion

The Cévennes National Park fits most of the development requirements set by the LEADER programme. It is located in a low population density area with a common political structure. It has developed economic activities mainly agriculture, forestry and small scale tourism services. The agricultural sector is being gradually replaced by tourism services, mainly small and medium cottage industry and enterprises and businesses that are family-run. There is no clear evidence to the existence of high consolidated social identity, structure and close business ties between the various local business sectors. On the other hand, there are major restrictions on the construction of buildings and infrastructure. There is also considerable community control over the environment and appropriate use of the natural resources. This is partially accompanied by a deliberate national policy (governance) to preserve nature (see Appendices 10; 11; 12; 13) (ATEN, 2001; Atlas, 2000; CNP, 2000; DATAR, 2001; Ifen, 2002).

### 5.4 National Parks in France

In the early 1960's French communities started to care about natural environment, biodiversity, and the preservation of the natural landscape. As a result, a ministry of environment was established in 1971. Its scope was later widened to cover National and Regional Development. Recently, in 2002, a new ministry was created to deal with environment issues. It was named the Ministry of *Ecology and Sustainable Development*. The French Government created (by decree) in March 1993, a sustainable development commission with the aim of implementing the commitments of Global Conference on the Environment and Development of Rio De Janeiro, held in 1992. It is now trying to implement sustainability through the conservation of natural resources on a national level. This process includes the development of frameworks that are socially and



economically sound and which take into consideration the protection of nature and environment and particularly the Mediterranean forests (Ifen, 2000; 2002; Prieur, 2004).

France's different geographical regions (Alpine, Continental, Atlantic, Mediterranean), and variation of climates render it very rich in natural, and cultural assets<sup>26</sup>. Its long history in the management of natural sites makes it an interesting case of study concerning the management of national parks. On the other hand France was the first inbound market in the world for tourism with 77 million visitors in the year 2003. Sixty percent of the visitors travel for the purpose of leisure, recreation and holiday. The tourism sector is estimated to generate 15 billion euros. The most common organized leisure activities include guided or individual hiking; culture and discovery of civilisations trips often guided by tour guides and culture and gastronomic programmes (ARDEL, 1999, WTO, 2003; <http://www.tourism.gov.fr/ACTUALITE>).

In all segments of French tourism there is a growing sensitivity towards environmental matters (DATAR, 2001; Ifen, 2002; WTO, 1999, 2002). Many natural parks have come to rely on ecotourism<sup>27</sup> as a means of generating income. Ecotourism, on the other hand, as a natural and socio-cultural resource-based form of tourism is considered as a small niche market that is in constant growth (see chapter four). Tourism experts consider ecotourism one of the fastest growing segments of tourism (Buckley, 1994; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Dearden and Harron, 1993; Ecotourism Society, 1998; Wild, 1994; WTO, 1999). The current market share of ecotourism trips in France is not obvious since the term ecotourism as described in chapter four is not clearly used in the French tourism promotion brochure, but replaced by the term sustainable, responsible and nature tourism.

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<sup>26</sup> It is a biological crossroad for many migratory birds, animals and plants, and a major designation country for all sorts of tourism activities

<sup>27</sup> Since 1945 tourism has been growing rapidly to become one of the world's foremost phenomena. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) estimates that there were more than 657 million international tourists in 1999 (WTO 2000). The WTO believes that tourism is the most growing global industry in the world and is expected to grow at a rate of approximately 4% per year till the year 2010 (World Tourism Organization, 1996).



The French market does not tend to specialize. The tour operators offer a wide range of combination of activities ranging from nature, culture, sports, market and village tours in one “a la carte” holiday. The nature or ecotourism holidays are characterized by short stay trips, which are less than two weeks. Tour operators present ecotourism to the tourists as scenery rather than an intrinsic asset and experience and give a small portion of their program to the participative products. Their tourism packages are conventional and standard and are based on the observation of wildlife, natural beauty and cultural places during cruises and hikes.

#### 5.4.1 Selection of sites for ecotourism activities in France

According to the French tour operators and some 300 visitors<sup>28</sup> the selection of ecotourism sites is based on the discovery of landscape and protected natural areas and habitat (parks and reserves) as well as direct contact with nature, the discovery of civilizations, cultural heritage and gastronomic traditions, the observation of wildlife, and the opportunity to play a part in some sporting activities (WTO, 2002). In general most tourists coming to France prefer a type of tourism that offers a combination of activities, as opposed to specialized holidays that focus on one main activity (see Appendix 8). There was a special interest in cultural holidays and visits to monuments and architectural sites. As for sports, hiking represented one of the most popular activities. Tour operators are gradually taking steps to better inform their customers to help conserve their destination sites. They are running awareness campaigns by distributing a code of ethics and encouraging them to purchase ecotourism-labelled services. France does not generate a high number of nature-based tourism products<sup>29</sup>. Most of the French tour operators who were interviewed find that nature and ecotourism activities continue to develop strongly in the French market (see Appendices 6 and 7) (WTO, 2002).

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<sup>28</sup>In 2001 a survey was done by the WTO on 300 nature oriented holiday visitors to France. Its aim was to identify the major activities for which the nature tourists would devote most of their time.

<sup>29</sup>The places that are recognized as nature destination are mainly Austria, Ireland, Switzerland, Holland and Scandinavia.



#### 5.4.2 Development of tourism and environmental policies in France

Over the last twenty years, leisure and tourism urbanisation and facilities have spread across some of the rural mountains of France<sup>30</sup>. Where part of the countryside has been greatly under pressure and has been reshaped the natural environment has often been degraded and tourists have been seen as the degraders in the eye of many nature defenders. Modest efforts have been made to protect and to develop the inland areas in a sustainable manner, while the coast remains the top destination for tourism activities. It alone accounts for more than 40% of the leisure tourism. Even in the winter, season coastal tourism is progressing at the expense of mountain areas, where the number of nights spent by tourists is less. So far the Cévennes National Park has not yet developed year-long strategy to attract the urban tourist who comes to its coast. On the contrary, its activities are seasonal, mainly in the summer, for events such as summer festival<sup>31</sup> (see Appendices 11 and 12).

Recently, France has witnessed awareness concerning solidarity between tourism and the environment. This has been marked by the *National Environment Plan 2002* (Plan National pour l'Environnement), which fixed a common working framework for two ministries relating to spatial planning, through the decentralization (Giran, 2003; Prieur, 2004). It touches around 36,000 communes that incorporate municipalities, mayors, and administrative councils. The plan includes orientations on tourism products. It is addressed to local tourism and environment actors and managers of natural parks and use guides and methodologies as major techniques. The plan also contains systematic initiation of environmental concerns for local administrators of tourism promotion, and nature tourism activities that are based on natural sites which are expanding rapidly. Some of these activities are water sports, air sports, mountain biking, rock climbing and birds and butterflies watching.

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<sup>30</sup>“Plan montagne” is an ambitious development plan for the mountain areas, which was developed in the early seventies. It has played a major role in the creation of new resorts in Aquitaine and Languedoc-Roussillon. Some of these developments have more than 150,000 beds.

<sup>31</sup> Even in the summer the author of the study had difficulty finding public transportation from main southern tourism coastal city of Nîmes to the Cévennes National Park.



On a national scale the French Ministries dealing with Tourism and Culture started a promotion co-operation plan for the historical, archaeological and cultural heritage sites available for tourism. Numerous tools have been designated to integrate the environment in the development of tourism and to use it as a qualitative criterion in the development policy. Certain environment protection procedures have been implemented since they are considered essential in the development of tourism. The most important of which are: *Firstly*, the revision of the urban planning codes; *secondly*, the reform of local taxation to cover a minor increase by the departmental authorities, which allows pursuing an interesting policy of acquisition and maintenance of natural areas that are to be conserved; and *thirdly*, the introduction of a law that will allow the local authorities grouped together in communes to be able to manage the environment on a scale that is more in favour of the development of tourism (Ifen, 2000; 2002; Prieur, 2004).

The ministry that deals with environmental affairs has gradually developed a system of tools for the protection of the environment, and a proper management approach of the natural resources, mainly the ones that are present in the National and regional parks and natural reserves (see Appendices 10; 11; 12). This strategy was based on the Creation of different intervention techniques for each area of protection. It developed a program of awareness to the locals who are mainly concerned with these protected areas. It initiated management approaches that are based on the characteristics of each natural site, and coordinated local implemented measures and regulations with national and international environmental policies and conventions.

A countryside (rural) management process that includes, national and regional parks, natural reserves, coasts and lakes' natural areas has been developed and is updated each year by the site managers<sup>32</sup>. The National Office of Forests uses variety of means and measures for the surveillance, protection and regeneration of the forests<sup>33</sup>. It manages differently those forests dedicated for leisure from those classified "protected forests". Due to a decline in the population in some of these parks, and a reduction in the land taken up for agriculture, a Law was passed in

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<sup>32</sup>There are 7 National Parks, 37 Regional Parks and 144 Natural Reserves. Except for the Coasts and lakes the total area of the Natural Parks and Reserves cover 11% of the total area of France.



1993 aimed at reducing the rural influx to the urban areas and initiated a “*travel plan*” for that purpose. A general effort to reduce pollution “mainly in towns and in industrial areas” has helped increase “clean river” operations and progressively remedied a larger part of the coastal water pollution stemming from waste disposed of in rivers. Such procedures are contributing to Tourism through the general improvement of human environment (Prieur, 2003, 2004).

Like Lebanon, France has signed conventions such as Ramsar, Barcelona, Washington, UNESCO, World Heritage, Man and the Biosphere, for the management and protection of its natural and cultural assets. The methods that are developed by these conventions directly concern the management teams which are administrating the natural sites. Guided by these international conventions and charters, local regulations and communal participation the teams are supposed to preserve the natural area based on recognizing the importance and the value of the site. The managers should set priorities for the selection and management of the natural areas. They must develop action plans and methods to achieve goals, and identify certain monitoring indicators for the evaluation and monitoring of their plans. They also have to highlight, the threats that might encounter such strategies. The creation, development and management of these natural areas have triggered a series of international contacts that are based on the exchange of know-how, through confrontation with new and different experiences, and the need to improve operational methods and assessment of results. One of these examples is the Cévennes National Park, which is twinned with Saguenay Park in (Quebec) and Montseny Park in (Catalonia) (Ifen, 2002; Giran, 2003; OCDE, 2001; Prieur, 2004).

It is true that in the natural reserves, the Ministry of Ecology and Sustainable Development (previously Ministry of Environment) initiates the support for proper management and development of activities and is responsible for their consistency and operation. But on the other hand each of these natural areas has full responsibility for the selection of its own international contacts which gives each natural reserve the opportunity to highlight on what it really needs and tries to get it through international contacts. In terms of exchanging experience and

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<sup>33</sup>The “polluter-pays principle” has not yet been fully applied.



information in the fields of tourism and environment, France is putting into place “*bilateral conventions*” with several Mediterranean countries. It is also establishing bilateral, cross-border accords with neighbouring countries (DATAR, 2001).

Blue Plan with its headquarters in Sophia-Antipolice, the French nature parks and the coastline conservatory, all participate in the international scientific networks. There is also co-operation with the MED.URB and MED.CAMPUS networks under the auspices of the EU. This multilateral level of cooperation is based on the exchange of environmental and tourism information and technical support. It includes the development and management of international tourism in the Mediterranean between home and host countries of tourism in the Basin. It also embraces co-operation in areas related to facilities and planning, using methods, and techniques that are compatible with sustainable development.

#### 5.4.3 Criteria for the selection of parks in France

In France the region that is nominated to be a national park must have exceptional landscape characteristics. It should be considered in the national interest of the state and the local community to protect, preserve and manage its ecological quality, its cultural richness and its historical characteristics. Its creation is generally preceded by a public enquiry, which involves the local population, local administration, specially elected persons and other professional groups. The enquiry is followed by the creation of a decree by virtue of the law N<sup>o</sup> 60-708 of July 1960. The enquiry delimits two zones for the national park. One which is strongly protected by a ministerial decree and is called the “zone centrale” (core zone) and could incorporate “integral reserves” while the other is a peripheral zone which includes human activities of productive nature. The local communes that live mainly in the peripheral zones rely primarily on the advantages brought about by the park for their long-term development. The law and the decree restrict and regulate the implementation of all the economic activities. Each national park is created by a specific decree. The law for the creation of parks varies and can adapt to the characteristics of each site (Giran, 2003; Patain, 2000).



National Parks in France do not necessarily hold ownership rights to their own land, and there has been no major amendment other than the “Mountains” Act of 1981, which gives national parks an economic, social, and cultural role in the regions that concern them (ARADEL, 1999; Prieur, 2004). Being a national public authority, each national park is a legal entity with financial autonomy. It has a Board of Directors on which local and national players mainly, elected representatives, public services, users, scientists, representatives of economic, educational, and cultural activities are represented. The board defines the park’s improvement programme, approves the lines of approach, monitors management and votes the budget. A team of field officers and specialist technicians is responsible for the protection, the monitoring of natural environment and cultural heritage, improvements, public relations and reception (ATEN, 2001) (see Table 5.5 and Appendices 10 and 11).

#### 5.4.4 Concept behind the creation of parks in France

As discussed in chapter four, national parks in the USA and Canada are created for the pleasure and enjoyment of the people in an attempt to endorse the cultural and natural values of societies by protecting certain areas of the landscape from the market forces that tend to destroy them. Such values can be summarized as *aesthetic, historical, recreational, spiritual, educational, and ecological*. These parks have a dual role - to conserve the park’s resources and to provide enjoyment for the public. Such policy has established a basis of conflict between protection and use, a conflict that continues to exist today (Sax, 1980; Lemons, 1987; Rolston, 1994; Dearden, 1995; Wright, 1996).

Equally the concept for the creation of national parks in France is based on the protection and preservation of the landscape, the sustainability of the biological diversity in the natural areas and the availability of the heritage of the park to the public and future generations. It aims to develop appropriate scientific and respectful approaches towards nature and natural balance (Giran, 2003; Patain, 2000; Prieur, 2004).



The national parks in France impose their regulations on the residents, users and visitors. The scientists and the nature protection associations support a strict management approach to the site. To them this makes the park easier to manage. Alternatively this policy renders the park less accessible to the local residents and not as profitable to the local communities. In the early stages of national park's establishment there was no emphasis on the creation of tourism or ecotourism markets to the parks, this came at a later stage. This was clearly shown in the early management programmes of the Cévennes national park where the purpose was to preserve the natural and cultural resources (ATEN, 2001; PNC, 2000). There is a similarity between the concept behind the creation of national parks in France and that of the natural reserves in Lebanon<sup>34</sup> whereby nature protection is the responsibility of the state, and all the components of the park are of major public interest (MoE and LEDO, 2002).

## **5.5 The Cévennes National Park-a pilot case study**

### **5.5.1 Historical background**

The original idea behind the creation of the Cévennes National Park was launched in 1913 by E. A. Martel and the "Club Cévenol". It was based on a growing awareness of the need to protect the great landscapes of the Causses and the Cévennes that dates back to the end of the 19th century. During World War One and Two the Cévennes region witnessed a migratory movement of its working force toward the big industrial areas and cities. The depopulation has been quite significant. The number of people declined from 120,000 habitants in 1850 to less than 35,000 in the mid nineteen fifties. In response to this rural exodus that was threatening the character of the region, the General Council of Lozère and the State administration, and other influential local people requested the creation of a national park. Their major aim was to preserve the nature, and the landscape of the region and to reduce depopulation. Based on the 1960 law for the creation of national parks, a decree in 1970 was issued designating the Cévennes National Park (Ifen, 2002; Giran, 2003; Patain, 2000; Prieur, 2004).

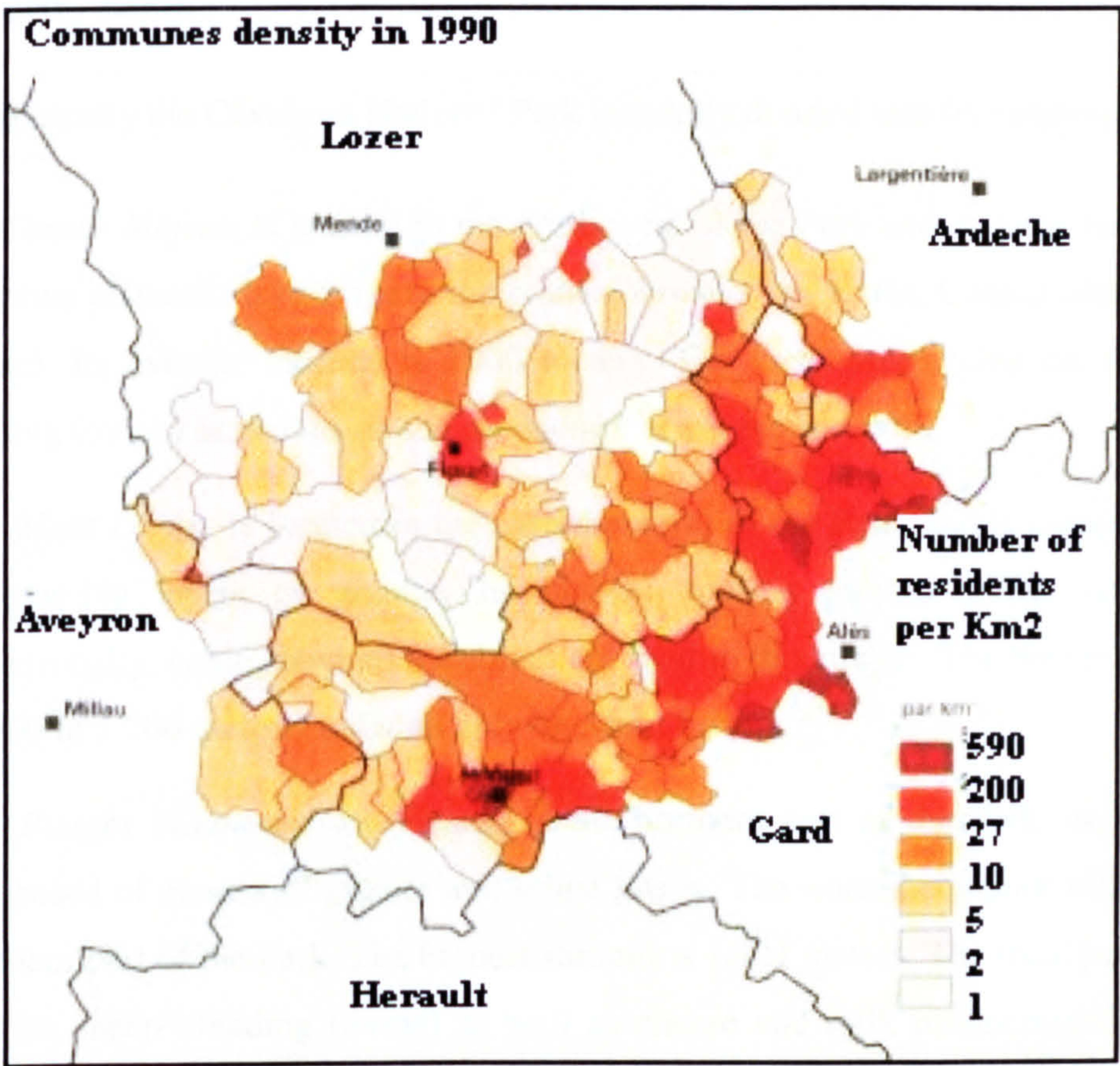
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<sup>34</sup> Lebanon does not have Natural Parks but has since 1992 created 7 natural reserves (see chapter 2)



Actually the Cévennes is the only French national park in the middle mountains that is the home for a significant permanent population. More than 41,000 people live in the peripheral zone and nearly 600 in the conservation core zone. They are essentially livestock breeders and maintain these highlands (more than 1,000 metres in altitude), which overlook the Mediterranean. The population density of the park varies between 2 and 590 persons/Km<sup>2</sup> (see Figure 5.2). The fact that the park is being populated by permanent communities who live directly from its natural resources gives it a socio-economic development aspect and a challenge to balance between the protection of the natural-cultural heritage and the development of the agro-pastoral activities (ATLAS, 2000; CNP, 2000).

Figure 5.2 Population density of the Cévennes National Park



Source: ATLAS, 2000



### 5.5.2 Description of the park

The Cévennes National Park has an area of 321,005 hectares (3,210 km<sup>2</sup>)<sup>35</sup> is located in the Languedoc-Roussillon region. It is shared by four departments (Table 5.3). Unlike Yellowstone and Banff National Parks where the natural reserves zones are not plainly defined, the Cévennes National Park is clearly divided into two main areas (see Figures 5.1 and 5.3). The central area is strictly governed by a ministerial decree that protects its natural and cultural assets, while the peripheral area is more flexible in terms of zoning regulations and is managed by the board of directors. The peripheral zone includes the communes that rely on the advantages brought about by the National Park for their long-term development. The number of communes in the entire region is 117 (ATLAS, 2000; CNP, 2000).

Geographically the Cévennes National Park is mainly divided into five regions.

- *The Causse Méjean* is located in the north-west of the Park and is composed of limestone plateaux. It belongs to the grand Causses (Sauverette, Causse noir and Larzac). Its average altitude is 1000 meters. The local people live on sheep breeding (ovine) as well as on the production of cheese and milk.
- *The Mont Lozère* is located in the extreme north of the Park, and is composed of massive layers of granite. Its highest spot is around 1,700 meters. Traditionally, cattle (bovine), (Aubrac) are bred in this region. The higher land (1,500 to 1,700 metres) is found only on Mont Lozère.
- *The Bougès Mountains* are located in the northern part of the Park, and are composed of masses of granite and schist layers. The watersheds pour into the northern part of the Park. The highest summit is 1,421 meters. The local people live on sheep breeding (ovine) as well as cheese and milk production. They also exploit the massive forests.

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<sup>35</sup> The Core Zone is 91,279 hectares 81% of which is in the department of the Lozère and 19% in the department of Gard. The Peripheral Zone is 229,726 hectares 54 % in the department of Lozère, 36% in the department of Gard and 10% in the department of Ardèche. The number of communes in the entire region is 117. Out of these communes 52 are directly concerned with the Core Zone.



- *The Gardons valleys* are located in the south eastern part of the Cévennes. They are engraved in schist and slate (Ardoise) layers. In the Cévenol valleys the traditional agricultural activities are goats breeding, as well as the production of silk (apiculture) from the mulberry trees, and the production of chestnuts. To the locals the mulberry tree was considered the gold and chestnut tree the bread.
- *Mont Aigoual* and *Lingas* are located on the southern part of the Park. They are mainly composed of layers of granite and schist. The highest area is around 1,565 meters. This region is rich with many types of vegetation mainly pine, fir and the beech trees. In this region the local residents live on cattle, and lamb breeding as well as on the exploitation of the forest (See Figure 5.3).

The Park’s climate starts in the south with hot dry summer temperatures especially in the Gardons valleys and ends up with very cold and humid temperatures (more than 90 days per year of frost) as in the Mont Lozère heights. The area is influenced by the Mediterranean front from the south, the Atlantic front from the west, and Continental front from the north. The Park has ten rivers, seven pour into the Atlantic ocean and are the Lot, the Tarn, the Mimente, the Tarnon, the Dourbie, the Trévezel and the Jonte, and three that pour into the Mediterranean and are the Gardons, Cèze and the Hérault. The central zone of the Park is divided into the four zones (see Figures 5.3; 5.4 and Table 5.4).

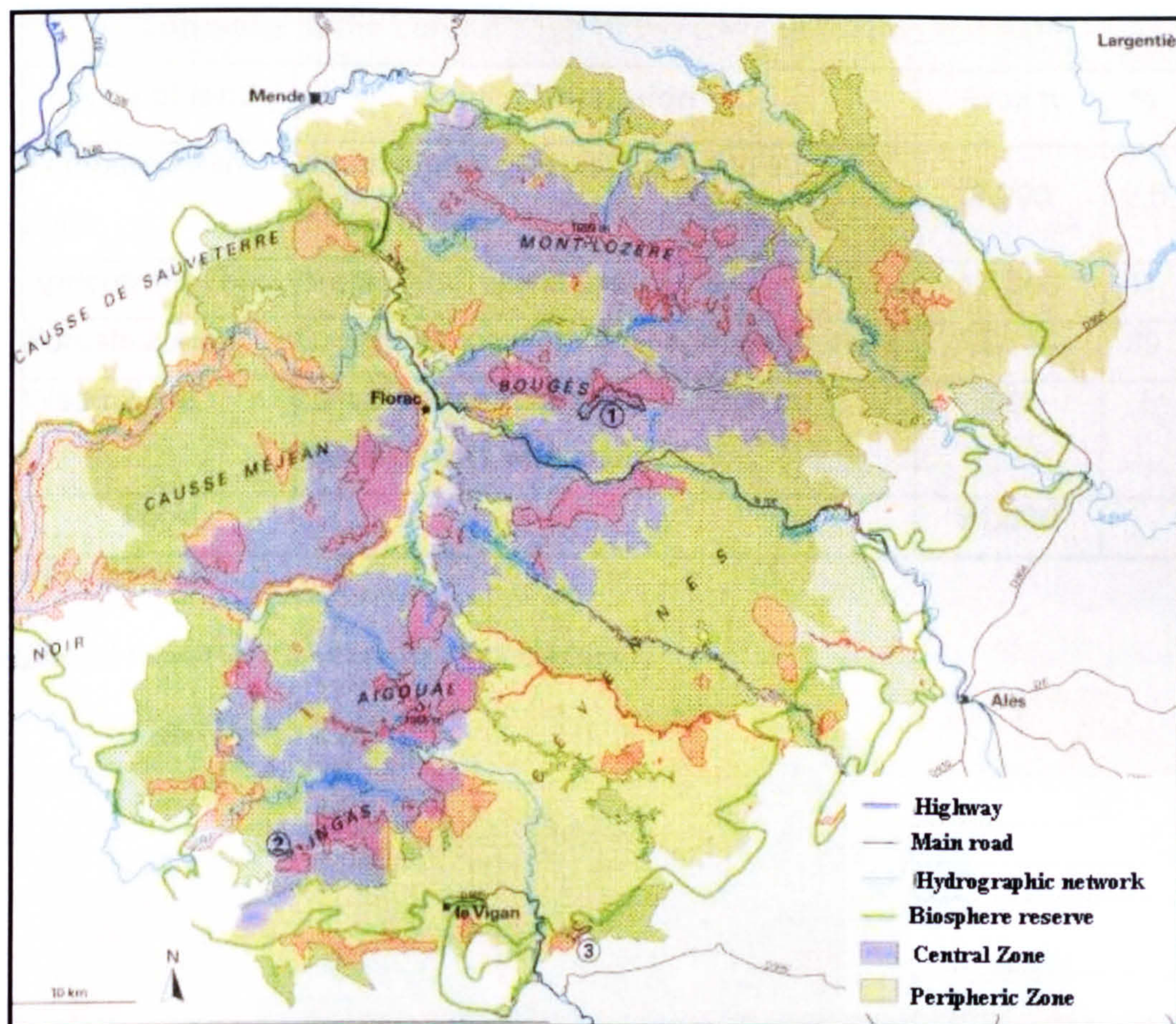
**Table 5.3 Administrative Divisions in the Cévennes National Park**

Administrative divisions of the National Park of Cévennes in the region of Languedoc- Roussillon	
Department	Reserve of biosphere area in ha
Lozère	184,000
Gard	115,000
Ardèche	7,650
Aveyron	14,280
Total	320,930

ATLAS, 2000



**Figure 5.3 Geographic Characteristics of the Cévennes National Park**



Source: ATLAS, 2000

The Cévennes Park is one of the places in Europe where some major biological enrichment took place in the last thirty years. The variety of its ecosystems (a mixture of forests, moor land, steppes and meadows and a mixture of dry and wet) favours the presence of a variety of fauna. The increase in diversity led by the National Park (tawny and black vultures, beavers, stags, roe deer, mouflon, grouse, and crayfish) and the protection of certain eco-systems has resulted in the natural re-colonization of various species (otters, black woodpecker, owls, vultures, and frogs). The Park has 2,250 species of flora (33 protected and 48 indigenous). It varies in type from polar to tropical. The forest occupies around 80% of the core zone (about 72,716 hectares): Holme Oak (up to 500 meters deciduous woodland and chestnut trees between 500 and 900 meters and beech woodland between 900 and 1,500 meters. The large forest of the commune of the Aigoual was the work of the local farmers at the end of the 19th Century. The chestnut trees of the Cévennes (40,000 hectares), cultivated for a thousand years, make up the typical landscape (CNP, 2000) (see Table 5.4 and Appendix 9).

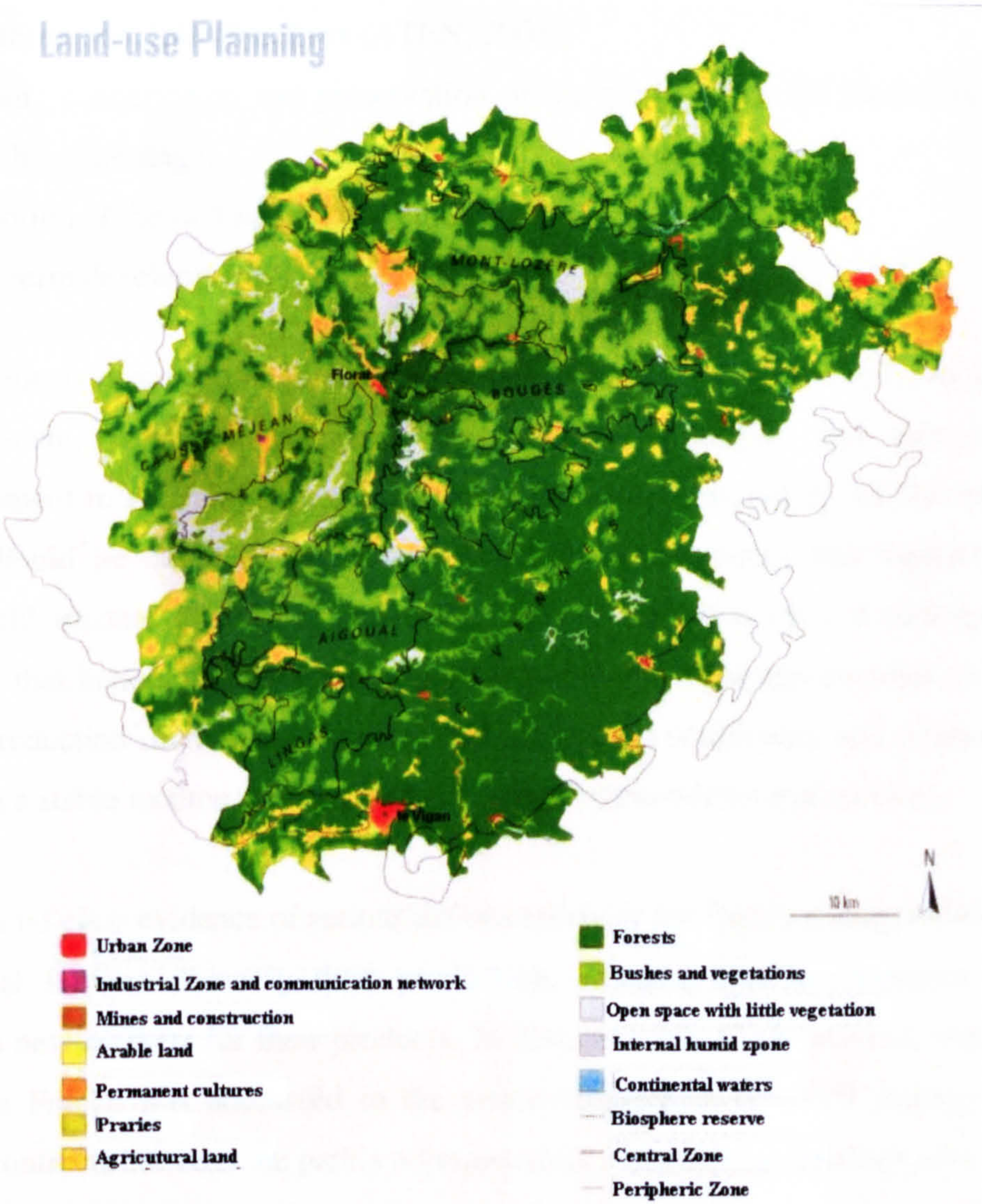


Table 5.4 Land-use in the central zone of the Cévennes National Park

Land-use in the central zone of the Cévennes National Park			
Type of land	Description	Area h	%
Tampered with zone	Urban areas, green spaces and super infrastructure	3,200	2.5
Agricultural Zone	Arable land, lawns and parries	15,350	17
Forests zone	Evergreen, conifers, fruit and mixed trees	72,710	80
Water Zone	Lakes, springs, water sheds, rivers, fountains and wet lands	320	.5
Total		91,580	

Source: ATLAS, 2000

Figure 5.4 Land-Use in the Cévennes National Park



Source: ATLAS, 2000



### 5.5.3 Livelihood strategy for the Park

The Cévennes National Park is trying to develop a livelihood strategy that fulfils the local residents' social and economic needs and requirement. Its management team claims that this is done by protecting the natural and cultural heritage while ensuring better continuation for agro-development that is constantly threatened by the forest and soil reclamation. In preserving this dynamic equilibrium the Park managers hope to contribute to sustainability and development of biodiversity and quality of the landscapes. The Park's management focused on the protection of the natural resources while involving the local partners. Its goal was to satisfy both the local residents' needs and those of the site. Similar to the national parks in the USA and Canada the Cévennes National Park's site management organises itself around three principle objectives (ATEN, 2001):

- Ongoing conservation and preservation of the biodiversity, the landscape and the cultural heritage;
- Promotion of the rich natural and cultural heritage;
- Long-term development.

As previously discussed in chapters three and four with respect to rural livelihood development, there are economic diversification strategies that should be development in the rural zones surrounding the natural reserve of the Cévennes. They should be based on devising policies and programmes that support the household income directly or indirectly. They should also offer a package of projects that includes the creation of productive employment opportunities for the locals, reduction of risk and vulnerability, combating seasonality and migration, offering a stable income and lowering the cost of commodities and services.

There is no clear evidence of serious actions taken by the Park's managers to help the local farmers diversify their production, enhance their performance and develop new markets for their products. In 2003 a report on the state of national parks in France was addressed to the prime minister. It favoured putting into action contracts between the park's administrators and the local residents who live



in the peripheral zones of the Cévennes National Park<sup>36</sup>. The report recommended that a fruitful and continuous dialogue is essential and should often take place between the defenders of nature and scientists of the Park on one side and the users on another. In addition to that, the management policies and strategies, laws and regulations that are set by the Park's administrators should not be imposed on the local residents without explanation and debate otherwise the inhabitants will feel offended and "colonised" in their own territory. A bottom-up approach should be followed that uses a horizontal course of action in developing final regulations and laws that concerns the Park (ARADEL, 1999; Giran, 2003).

Economic studies done by the national parks of France have revealed that since 1975, 1500 jobs related to tourism have been created in the Cévennes National Park (Giran, 2004; Perret, 2001). The officials in the Park have indicated that this is a good start but there is still a long way to go. As the Park's financial resources are quite limited, there is an urgent need to collect more funds. In this respect the Park's management proposed enforcing the image of the Park as a capital for World Cultural Heritage site.<sup>37</sup> In return this process could mobilize public financing sources for the Park in partnership with members of the EU and by that have access to programmes like the LEADER<sup>38</sup> (ARDEL, 1999; DATAR, 2001).

The Park's management has started a strategy to tackle unemployment which started in the year 2000 by integrating the "European Charter for Tourism"<sup>39</sup> to its 2000-2005 management programme (see Appendices 12 and 13) (DATAR, 2001; CNP, 2000). The management team imposed bidding documents that favour the development of action plans and monitoring processes that are affiliated with the Charter and take into consideration the local partners' opinion. The Park's management team has highlighted the need to collect data on the tourists who visit the Park. This information touches the tourists' background, number of visits to the region, aims, objectives and needs (DATAR, 2001; CNP, 2000).

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<sup>36</sup> This in return could assure a support for locals to find markets for their products.

<sup>37</sup> It was declared by the UNESCO.

<sup>38</sup> In 2002 the national park of Mercantour has integrated 53 communes in a LEADER+ European programme. This programme is base on valuing the upper rural regions' natural and cultural resources, in addition to a technology that serves the local products.

<sup>39</sup> It is a method that applies the twelve sustainable tourism principles that were set by the charter for the protected region (Appendix 11).



The Park with its natural reserve and its biosphere region receives around 800,000 tourists per year. The length of stay for the tourists in comparison with other regions of the country is considered short - that is between three days and one week. Tourism is the second major activity after agriculture in the Park. There are other major activities that exist and can participate in tourism development. The most important of these are sericulture, silviculture, pastoral production, cultivation of chestnuts not to forget visitor tours led by professionals as well as sports such as hiking, canoe-kayak, climbing, speleology, horseback riding, cross country skiing, eco-museum visits and summer “Nature Festivals” (ARDEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001; ATLAS, 2000; Speleo Club du Liban, 1998).

The region has around 700 rural lodges of which more than twenty five are classified “Panda Lodges”<sup>40</sup>. There are 90 short stay and bed and breakfast (B&B) lodges, twenty of which accommodates horses, 150 hotels, 460 rural inns, 130 camping areas, 20 camping farms, 20 farm lodges, 10 youth hostels, and 36 villages for young people. Out of these tourist facilities hundreds are labelled “France lodges”. These tourist services are spread mainly around the major concentrations such as Florac, Meyrueis, Jean-du-Gard, Le Vigan, Valleraugue, Bagnols-les-Bains, and les Vans (See Figure 5.5). The owners of a “Panda Lodge” must sign an agreement with the WWF and National Park<sup>41</sup> (Auzeby, 2002; DATAR, 2001). The “Panda Lodges” label guarantees that the Cevennes National Park has a nature based environment. It assures the availability of an observatory for nature, the capacity for documentation of specific information and the proper management of the site by owners or administrators who are sensitive to the preservation of nature. On the other hand those lodges that are members of the “Panda Lodges” should be located on a property that is within a walking distance of places of nature activities. They should have observation and tracking programmes and activities offered for the lodges’ residents. They should also offer educational information such as a brochures, fauna and flora guides, maps and documentation of the Park.

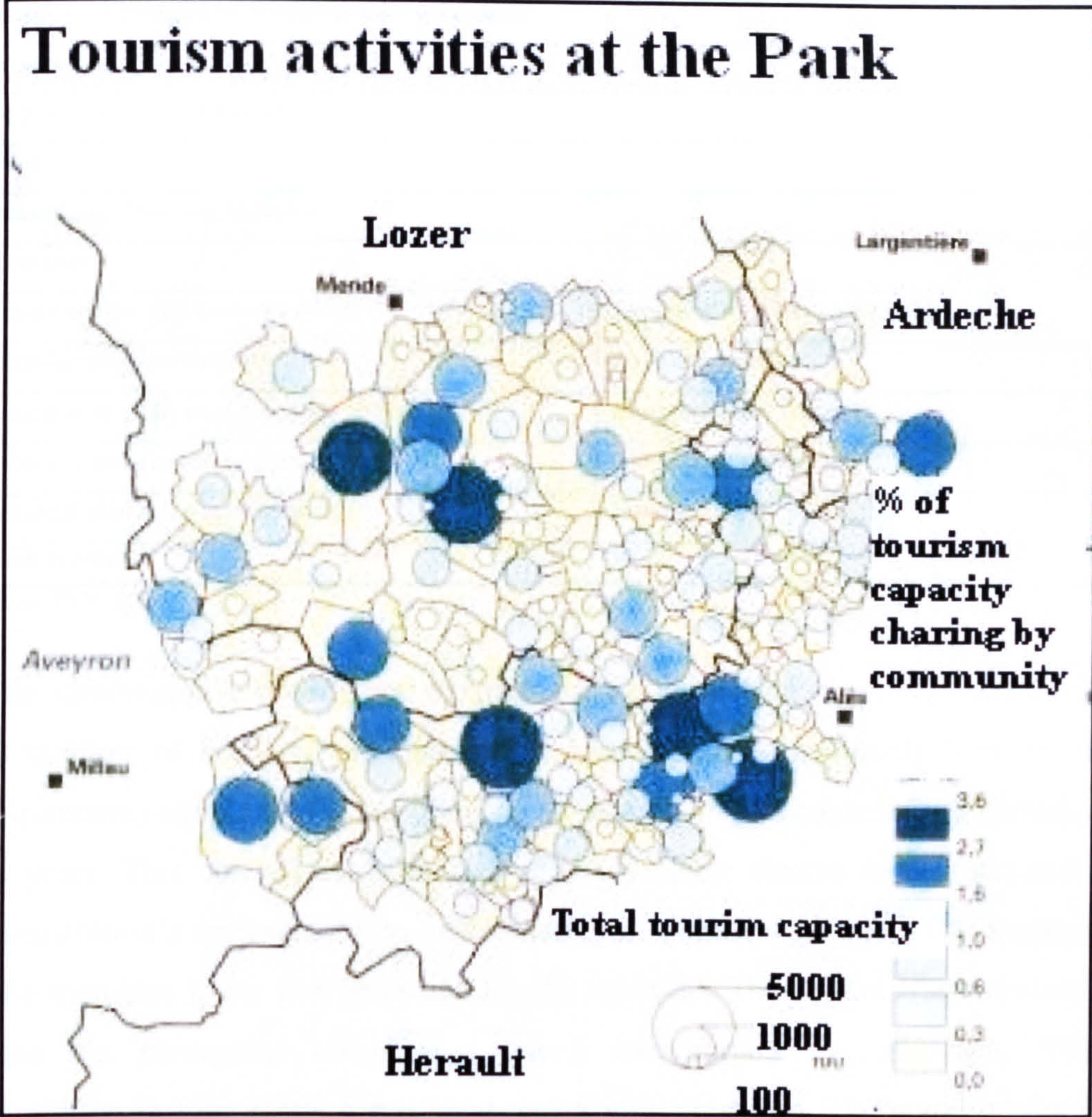
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<sup>40</sup>The world’s “WWF-funds for nature” issues the label Panda for Lodges situated in national parks.

<sup>39</sup>Owners promise to protect and preserve the natural richness that surrounds the site and to cooperate with the scientists of the Park. They must inform their clients about the site in terms of natural pedestrian paths, natural reserves, protected areas, observation towers and nature festivals.



Figure 5.5 Tourism Capacity



Source: ATLAS, 2000

5.5.4 Administrative structure, regulations, services and activities

The Cévennes National Park is a public institution of administrative character (see Appendix 10). It is located in the region of Languedoc-Roussillon which incorporates four departments<sup>42</sup>. The administration is located at Florac. The Park has 70 permanent staff and 50 temporary ones that work for it. The major management departments and teams are as follows (see Table 5.5).

<sup>42</sup> France is divided administratively into 96 departments and 36,000 communes, for each of these departments there is a prefect (a chief of services for the government).



Table 5.5 Administrative Structure

Minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development	
The administrative Council	
The permanent Commission	
President	
Director and Assistant Director	
Secretariat	
Documentation and archives centre	Park area unit-biosphere reserve
Scientific and planning service	Aigoual Antenna
Protection and Physical planning service	Causse-gorges Antenna
Discovery and communication service	Mont-Lozère Antenna
Technical studio for natural areas	Cévenoles valley Antenna
General secretariat	

Source: CNP, 2000

1-The administrative council and the permanent commission

The minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development (previously Minister of Environment) nominates the members of the administrative council for a period of five years. This council is composed of (52 people): elected locals, scientists, administration’s representatives, and a variety of qualified people. The mandate of the members is for five years and can be renewed. The administrative council names the *permanent commission* which incorporates ten members. This commission in turn elects a president and a vice president. The appointment is subject to the approval of the Minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development (MESD).

The administrative council defines the planning principles, the management and the regulations of the Park which the director should observe. It develops a management programme for the Park for a period of five years. The administrative council approves the functioning and organisation of the establishment. It votes the budget and comments on administrative matters and on the annual report of activities that is developed by the director of the Park, and controls the Park’s accounting. Based on a proposition from the administrative council the minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development creates a scientific committee. The services of the president and the members of administrative council and the permanent commission are free of charge.



## 2-The directorate

The directorate is composed of a director and an assistant director. The president nominates the director and his vice president. The prefect who is the government's representative has the power to cancel a decision issued by the director based on valid requests from the mayors or other public or private entities.

## 3-The departments and specialists

In the Park there are five major departments which are: 1)-a scientific and a planning department; 2)-protection services and physical planning department; 3)-a communication and mass media department; 4)-a general administration and accounting department; and 5)-a field implementation department that has 4 antennas i.e. (regions) (see Appendices 10 and 11).

## 4-Major site services and activities

Two major services and activities are implemented on the site. A monitoring and guarding service deals with environment, landscape management, culture, hosting and certain specific information on site operations. While the applied science and research activity is part of an integrated plan that is based on *ecological, economic and socio-cultural data collection and verification, research studies* (see Appendix 11).

### 5.5.5 Management strategy for the Park

The management of the site is based on the following objectives: *Firstly*, conservation of the ecological quality such as biodiversity, and landscape; *secondly*, protection and promotion of rich rural cultural and historical heritage; and *thirdly*, facilitation and control of short and long-term development (see Appendices 10; 11; 12). This is followed by a series of plans that has been developed in the fields of *architecture, agriculture, ecology and tourism*. These plans, activities and operations are implemented through plans that touch on environment, culture, rural lodging, residential and commercial private and public rural buildings' improvement, forestry, eco-museums, creation of permanent seasonal hosting information centres, nature festival activities and pedagogic services.



At the end of 1998 the basic programme was elaborated upon 2000-2005 for the management of the Park. It was based on an experimental methodology developed by the “*ATEN*” *Atelier Technique des Espaces Naturelles* (see Appendix 12) (ATEN, 2001; CNP, 2000). This programme has achieved the approval of the local communities, the NGOs and the employees of the national park, the members of its specialized commissions, the administrative council and the director of the Park. The management strategy was established through two tactics, internal meetings and external contacts and consultation for the program that incorporates two components - strategic-programming and an operational component.

According to the 2000-2005 management programme for the Park, the strategic approach intends to develop economic potentials, conserves the environment, protects natural heritage species (fauna and flora) and controls the fauna prey to a level that is compatible with the safeguard of the environment and local activities. It is intended to preserve the character of the landscape and to promote “Les Cévennes National Park” as a destination place. It proposes to promote an entertainment and a discovery tourism that is spread in a balanced manner in the entire region.

The programme encourages an agriculture that respects the environment and is adapted to the diversity of the area. It hopes to value the national park’s products through a production process that is considered sustainable and develops a partnership of projects with the local communities, stake holders and key players. The operational component on the other hand seeks to encourage the research, development of knowledge, and experimentation. It favours contractual management and partnership with the locals. It aims to implement the laws and regulations concerning the protection of the environment, spreads the “Value of the Park” to all the public and adapts the financial interventions of “Les Cévennes National Park” to the regional planning policy. It also seeks to modernize the institutions planning and programming capabilities (CNP, 2000).

For the evaluation of the management results, an activities report is issued every three years to the ministry of ecology and sustainable development. On an internal



management level, an evaluation report of the site agents' progress and productivity is presented annually to the director of the Park. As for the budget, the Ministry of Ecology and Sustainable Development (previously Ministry of Environment) specifies the budget of the Park, the sources of which are 95% from the government and 5% from local revenues (see Appendix 12).

Based on the documents already reviewed and the open ended interviews that were launched with local residents and public administrators, the Cévennes National Park follows an environment-tourism planning policy and management approach (see para 4.3). This strategy emphasizes the identification and conservation of the natural resources which are part of the land-use planning process, as well as developing tourism. The management process incorporates the involvement of the government agencies, NGOs, academia, and the local community to set the main objectives and guide-lines for the management of the site. This is done through a series of forums and workshops. The management also includes environment policies and strategies on a regional level. The board of administrators that is in charge of the planning and management of the site includes representatives from the government agencies, municipalities, NGOs, academia, and the local community. It focuses on the biological conservation, preservation and diversification of the site, local community participation and benefit to the local tourism development (DATAR, 2000).

In general, the overall Cévennes Park system comprises a *natural value*, a *historic value* and a *recreational value*. The management approach of the Cévennes National Park incorporates characteristics from the three categories by which the Park acts as an agent for positive social changes where local people are stakeholders within it and their social and economic activities (e.g. tourism, and farming) are ecologically sustainable. The Park's dual mandate of protection and use provides a broad framework for land management which is trying to balance preservation and visitor enjoyment by setting aside some areas primarily for preservation purposes and others for recreation and visitors facilities, as well as the introduction of public hearings in the form of public participation in master planning for national parks.



For developing a management plan in favour of the Park, the administrative council starts by defining objectives and setting surveys and plans for the site. With the help of the committee of experts, the council then analyses the results and formulates indicators. If the objective is conservation of the natural resources, the indicators will be based on the IUCN recommendations<sup>43</sup> (see Appendices 5 and 6), whereas if the objective is tourism and eco-tourism<sup>44</sup> development then the indicators will comply with the *European Charter for sustainable Tourism in the Protected Areas*, the *Panda regulations* and the *MBA*<sup>45</sup> (see para 4.3 and Appendix 13) (ARDEL, 1999; DATAR, 2000). This process is followed by the development of strategies and action plans, an implementing and monitoring process and a periodic review and evaluation.

The evaluation of the management plan is done on two levels. The local level evaluation is done by the administrative council of the Park, whereas on a national level evaluation is done by the ministry in charge of the sector concerned. The planning and management consider the integrated zoning management and the visitor's management plan as essential parts of the process. These activities are set in a framework where inter-agency coordination is often part of the process (ATEN, 2001) (see Appendix 6 and chapter 4 para 4.3).

As discussed in chapter 4 paragraph 4.3, the Cévennes National Park management process follows aims designed to achieve a “required condition”. This is clearly evident in the management team's effort to achieve balance between the protection of the natural and cultural heritage and ensuring better continuation of the agro-development that is constantly threatened by the return of the uncontrolled shrubs and trees. In this respect, the management team claims to address what constitutes “acceptable changes, and limits” with respect to human tampering with Park's ecosystem by: *Firstly*, describing and defining the desired conditions in terms of the natural resources' carrying capacity; *secondly*, establishing the current conditions through a baseline inventory; *thirdly*, comparing the existing with the desired conditions and setting indicators as per

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<sup>43</sup> The French committee of the IUCN focuses on the conservation notion and the bio-indicators (ATEN, 2000).

<sup>44</sup> An “Ecotourism Cévennes” association was created in June 2001.

<sup>45</sup> UNESCO programme for Man and the Biosphere (MAB).



IUCN and the *European charter for sustainable tourism in the protected areas*' norms; *fourthly*, initiating management actions to maintain or achieve desired conditions; and *fifthly*, monitoring the results and modification of management actions as appropriate (ATEN, 2001; CNP, 2000). A comparison between this management approach and those covered in chapter 4 by the Yellowstone and Banff Parks indicates a great resemblance in terms of the strict policy to conserve natural and cultural heritage by implementing strict rules and regulations concerning tampering with natural and cultural resources. This strategy stems from the implementation of a Carrying Capacity (CCA) and an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) prior to any strategy or development plan. In the CNP there are no clear indications if an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) or a Carrying Capacity study has been implemented prior to the creation of the CNP.

## 5.6 Synthesis

The Cévennes National Park (CNP) illustrates in a descriptive and a practical manner how key concepts such as tourism, rural livelihood and proper site management strategies reduces rural exodus by enhancing the Park's managerial strategy. Four consecutive sites management programmes were made. The first one started in 1975 and focused mainly on the institution's structure and logistics. The second one gave priority to the continuation of agricultural activities, forestry, and restoration of the cultural heritage aspects of the Park. Accordingly, the management strategy followed a rigid "top-down" policy that dealt with conservation of the physical components of the Park. It was mainly oriented towards the protection of the fauna and flora and other natural and cultural assets. As of 1995 the management has gradually changed its management strategy to involve the local communities and NGOs in the decisions made related to the management and sustainability of the Park (CNP, 2000). In deed, the fifth 2000-2006 management programme for the Park encourages the development of a partnership between the CNP and the local actors in compliance with the local agenda 21 that is incorporated in the *European Charter for sustainable Tourism in the Protected Areas* (see Appendix 13) and the UNESCO's Man and the Biosphere programme.



One of the major achievements of the Park is the success in increasing the residents of the national park at a 2% per annum rate since 1970 to reach more than 41,000 permanent residents. Another accomplishment is the development of jobs for more than 1,500 local residents. In its new policy, the public administration of the Park is encouraging the twinning with other international parks, the development of all types of charters, federations, unions, and associations in the fields of agriculture, farming, tourism, industry, art, culture, marketing and promotions. It is favouring the development of management contracts and partnership between the public administrators and local NGOs and supporting the development of small and medium size enterprises. It is emphasizing a low impact management approach towards the site that includes public awareness, preservation and conservation of nature and cultural resources, for the well-being of the local community. It is implementing a good awareness, marketing and promotion policy of the Parks' services and products through hosting facilities that abide by the *Panda label* regulations and the *European Charter for Tourism in the protected areas*.

The managers of the national park have realized that for establishing a sustainable agro-biodiversity as well as socio-economic and tourism policy, they should continue with developing indicators that abide by the European tourism charter for sustainable tourism in protected areas, the IUCN and the UNESCO. These indicators are followed up through a set of observatories (antennas) that are set up in three areas of the Park. They are mainly used for establishing a base line for monitoring and post-evaluating any development, weakness or improvement in the state of the Park's natural, cultural, economic, social and tourist assets.

The management process that is being used by the national park's management team is similar to that of the *Limits of Acceptable Change* (LAC) management method and focuses mainly on managing for desired conditions. It addresses what constitutes acceptable change, and establishes limits with respect to the human tampering with natural setting (see para 4.3). The national park's management process starts by defining the desired conditions in terms of resources, social and managerial attributes and indicators-development of an ATLAS and outlines the current conditions through a baseline inventory (ARDEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001).



This is followed by a comparison of existing and desired conditions, the initiation of strategies and the development of action plans to implement and maintain desired conditions (CNP, 2000). The management process is sustained through a continuous monitoring process that evaluates the results and proposes modifications (Kuss *et al.*, 1990; Lime *et al.*, 1996; Manning, 1986b; Page *et al.*, 2002; Shelby *et al.*, 1996; Stankey *et al.*, 1985).

The national park's management programme aims to conserve the biodiversity and the landscape, promote rural culture and heritage and to facilitate long-term development through *strategic-programming* and an *operational approach*. The *strategic approach* is based on developing the residents' potential to conserve, protect and preserve the natural environment and the cultural heritage by launching awareness programmes to the locals and promoting "Cévennes National Park" as a tourism destination for entertainment and discovery. It encourages agricultural production that is environmentally friendly and develops partnership projects with the local communities, stakeholders and key players. Whilst the *operational approach* incorporates the encouragement of research, the development of knowledge, and the experimentation and identification of certain monitoring indicators for the evaluation and monitoring of plans. It also creates intervention techniques to implement the laws and regulations concerning the protection of the environment. It also adapts the regulations of the Park to the major environmental, social and economic needs and spread the "Value of the Park" to all the public.

The operational process adapts the financial interventions of "Les Cévennes National Park" to the regional planning process. It coordinates locally implemented measures, and regulations with local communities and national and international environmental charters, policies and conventions<sup>46</sup>, and focuses on agriculture, ecology, architecture, landscape, and local community development activities. An evaluation of activities report is issued every three years to the ministry of ecology and sustainable development, and an evaluation report of the site agents' progress and productivity is presented annually to the director of the Park.

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<sup>46</sup> France has signed conventions such as Ramsar, Barcelona, Washington, UNESCO, World Heritage and others.



Major threats endanger the sustainability of the Cévennes National Park's management process, one of which is the lack of trust between local people and Park authorities. Another threat is the polarization of power applied by the government that delimits the local residents and stakeholders from participating in the decision-making process. To prevent this from happening the Cévennes National Park's management authority is trying to be open to suggestions from the local stakeholders, this being done through a series of seminars and workshops. The CNP's management team need to initiate ample data collection related to the local residents of the Park's social and economic needs and requirements, households size, unemployment rate, revenue and class allocation. The management should also gather information on the type of tourists who visit the Park, their origin (domestic, trans-regional, international), and age, and to embark on a "Livelihood Adaptation Study" and a "Diversification of Revenue Policy and Strategy" (ARDEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001; ATLAS, 2000; DATAR, 2001).

There is also no proof that an Environmental Assessment and Review Process (EARP) and an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) are launched prior to the setting of any management plan or if an ecosystem-based management and a protection plan within the Park have been clearly developed. Such plan must follow new thinking and policy that focuses on heritage and potential within Parks where ecological integrity takes priority over use for the purpose of attaining a sustainable form of tourism. This aspect has important implications on the long-term expansion and development of the Park system (Butler and Boyd, 2000). The adhering of the CNP to the *European charter for sustainable tourism in protected areas* in 2002 is a good start but this should be followed by the strict procedures set by EUROPARC.

In fact the Park has limited sources of revenue for development. Its budget relies directly on funds coming from the government. For that purpose the Park administration should establish a strategy to reduce the reliance on the national budget through helping the local unions, federation of communes, and NGOs meet the international requirements in terms of their internal structure, quality and management standards, services and production. Then these NGOs and communes would have a better chance of getting funds from international



organizations and agencies, and to find foreign markets for their products. The CNP's management has recently launched an attempt to enforce the image of the Park as a world cultural heritage site<sup>47</sup> and hopes to mobilize public financing sources for the Park from the DATA, EU, LEADER<sup>48</sup> and FEDER (DATAR, 2001). This mobilisation in terms of funding is not sufficient. It does not cover a strategy to open foreign markets to the exportation of local agro-pastoral and artefact products.

Finally this chapter concludes that the strategy developed by the Cévennes National Park (CNP) has achieved an acceptable level of satisfaction in terms of answering to the research's question, namely how to reduce rural migration. The CNP's consecutive management programmes were able to increase the number of permanent residents at a rate of 2% per year and to create 1,500 new job opportunities for the locals. The policy that is under implementation by the Park is very promising. It has developed some public private partnership and is abiding by the European Charter for Sustainable Tourism and the IUCN and UNESCO's guide lines. The Park's management has previously followed a "top-down" approach in reaching decisions concerning management and development of the CNP. Recently, in its final "2000-2006" management plan for the Park, the administration has recommended a bottom-up approach between the decision makers and the local stakeholders. It has also developed a twinning policy that is based on sharing experience with other international parks (CNP, 2000).

In order for the Cévennes management framework to be adopted as a prototype for other case studies like the Qadisha-cedars, there are requirements that should be met. The most important needs are *firstly*, the development and application of a rural diversification strategy to enhance the local farmers and developers' performance and production's abilities; *secondly*, to perform marketing and promotion action plans for the Park's products and tourism services on a local, national and international level. This action plan should be accompanied by capacity building for the tour operators and the local residents; and *thirdly*, to

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<sup>47</sup> It was declared by the UNESCO.

<sup>48</sup> In 2002 the national park of Mercantour has integrated 53 communes in a LEADER+ European programme. This programme is based on valuing the upper rural regions' natural and cultural resources, in addition to a technology that serves the local products.



perform a bottom-up strategy between the public and the private sectors of the Park in accordance with a horizontal communication policy between the concerned public institutions.



## **6 Sustainable Rural Livelihood in Lebanon**



## **6.1 Introduction**

In the early chapters, it was found that poverty is a major cause of rural depopulation and that a diversified strategy is one of the solutions for combating it. A diversified strategy relies on the effective use of rural assets (natural, social, human, financial and physical). For that, this chapter investigates Lebanon's rural assets. It evaluates the ability of the national government to develop a diversified strategy that fights poverty and reduces rural depopulation. Finally this chapter concludes with suggestions that the national government should follow on Macro, Meso, and Micro levels to fight depopulation.

## **6.2 Historical context**

In terms of the historical context, Lebanon has been known as the land of the Phoenicians and the Cedars. Its forests are considered a natural and a historical asset. In its mountains lived the first Lebanese searching for liberty and security. For centuries, the Lebanese were able to survive by cultivating and preserving the harsh slopes and adapting them to their needs without disturbing the ecosystem (Karam, 1972; Chahine, 1980b). Their appreciation and respect for nature was based on the high degree of dependency upon it. For local people nature and landscape were the basis for survival and security (Fawaz, 2002; Hitti, 1985; Karam, 1972; Labaki, 1986; Moussawi, 1978; Touma, 1986).

In the early twentieth century a sovereign and independent Lebanon was established. The mountains which were a vital source of revenue and protection gradually lost their previous function and the migration of the rural residents to the coastal zone and to other parts of the world started (Chahine, 1980a; Labaki, 1986; Mallat, 1971; 1997).

## **6.3 Natural assets of Lebanon**

Geographically Lebanon has a total area of 10,452 km<sup>2</sup>, and is situated east of the Mediterranean Sea. It stretches about 210 km along the coast and has an inland width of around 50 km. The mountainous region is 65% of the total area of the country and is in part inhabited. The arable land composes 20% of the total area of land and is in the form of plains that are located in the northern, central and



eastern parts of the country. The Coastal strip is 15% of the area of the country. It includes foothills up to 250 metres and is for the most part urbanised (see Figure 1.1) (MoE, 2001; MoE and LEDO, 2002; MoE and UNDP, 2002).

Lebanon can be divided from west to east into four parallel topographic spaces (CDR, 2004).

- A very narrow coastal plain;
- A Mountainous area called the Mount Lebanon;
- An elongated plain strip called the Beqaa that is around 900 meters above sea level which is a very fertile land for agriculture;
- A set of mountains that stretches all along the country with an average altitude of about 2,300 metres above sea level (see Figure 1.1) (CDR and IAURIF, 1999; LARI *et al.*, 2004).

Lebanon is characterized by a mild Mediterranean maritime climate that is hot and humid in the summer and mild in winter (Atlas Climatique du Liban, 1960, Météo-Liban (1999-2001), MPWT *et al.*, 1995). Out of Lebanon's total area of 10, 452 km<sup>2</sup>, 52% are rocky, non-cultivated lands and degraded rangelands. The soils are mainly Mediterranean and calcareous in character. They are mostly represented by the Terra-Rossa and the Rendzinas. The vegetation is of two distinct groups, the Mediterranean group, and the Pre-Steppic groups of shrubs. The Mediterranean group (i.e. Cedars, oak and pine) prevails on the western and northern slopes of Lebanon, while the Pre-Steppic shrubs are mainly spread in the rest of the country.

Lebanon is rich in water due to the abundant rainfall that is available for a period of eight months per year. Its geology and aquifers play a major role in preserving this water in the form of rivers, and lakes all year long. There are about 40 major rivers in Lebanon (FAO, 1997). Lebanon does not suffer from an overall water deficit though available water resources are poorly distributed, geographically and seasonally (METAP, 1995). The rivers and watersheds occupy a major role in the Lebanese ecology. They have a vital role in irrigating Mount Lebanon, the Beqaa valley and the Akkar plains and allow the rich and diverse flora and fauna to develop. Some of the natural floras (herbs) that are found in the rural mountains



are used for seasoning in cooking or for the development of certain medicines. The over-exploitation of the flora (forests) dates back to the ancient Roman period. It is still happening and has left the mountains and slopes barren with only scattered surviving remnants of the once extensive stands of cedars, fir, juniper and oak. At present the forest cover does not exceed 7% of the total country area (El-haber, 2000; Gombault, 1995; Haber, 1994; MoA, 1997; Moussawi, 1978) (see Table 6.1).

**Table 6.1 Land-Use in Lebanon**

Land-use in (1994)			
	1000 ha	%	ha per cap
<b>Cultivated land:</b>	307	30	0.102
-Arable land	180	17.6	0.06
-Permanent crops	127	12.4	
Permanent meadows & pastures	15	1.5	
Forests and woodlands	80	7.8	0.026
<b>Other land:</b>	621	60.7	
-Barren land	528	51	
-Built-on areas, roads	93	9	
<b>Total land area</b>	1,023	100	

Source: Blue Plan, from FAO Database, 1999 and MoA, 1997.

### 6.3.1 Nature protection procedures

In 1992 the law 121/1992 for the creation and protection of nature reserves was introduced. According to this law, protected areas or nature reserves are set aside to protect and conserve natural resources, wildlife and plants<sup>49</sup>. The law also forbids cutting of indigenous and endangered trees and plants, hunting, fishing, herds grazing and extraction of sand and rocks in the natural reserves. So far seven nature reserves have been declared<sup>50</sup> (MoE, 2001; MoE and UNDP, 2002) (see Figure 1.3). Each of these reserves has a distinctive richness of species. Their area is estimated at around 8,000 ha and represents about 1% of the total country’s land area and includes forests, islands, and swamps with mountainous and coastal Eastern Mediterranean ecosystems. Local communities and NGOs manage them under the supervision of the Ministry of Environment (MoA, 1997; Touma, 1986). However, many of these natural areas and protected forests are fragile with low resilience whereby disturbance can have considerable ecological implications. As

<sup>49</sup> Such practice was part of the old tribal traditions call “Hima” and was used for grazing.  
<sup>50</sup>The Palm islands in Tripoli, the Ihden forest, the Ciders of shouf, maaser el-shouf till Dhaheer el-Baidar in Mount Lebanon, the Yamouni Lake, the Wetlands and Shores of Tyre, Kfarzabad in Zahle, the Bentaal National Reserve and the Wadi Qadisha natural site (see Figure 1.3).



for the biodiversity, the documented number of living species in the forests, and on the seashores is about 9,119 (4,633 flora and 4,486 fauna). The modern agricultural practices and infrastructure are threatening the biodiversity with asphalt roads, buildings, factories and quarries spreading around these natural sites (Gombault, 1995; MoA, 1997).

Finally, the geographic location of Lebanon, its geology and topography have created a versatile natural capital such as beaches, mountains, rivers, lakes, forests and wetlands, as well as richness in history and culture. These natural and cultural resources, if properly managed can reflect positively on the local people. They can offer them the opportunity to develop diversified sources of income through activities like, ecotourism, industry and trade (Haber, 1994; MoE and LEDO, 2002; LARI *et al.*, 2004).

## **6.4 Economic activities**

### **6.4.1 Agricultural activities**

In terms of economic activities agriculture is practiced in most of the rural parts of Lebanon, with regional variations in crops and soil fertility. The Beqaa valley produces a wide range of crops the chief one being wheat. The coastal plains to the north are planted with citrus, bananas, and vegetables. The Mount Lebanon stepped terraces produce orchard fruits such as apples, figs, olives and grapes, whereas the eastern mountain chain is considered arid with poor productivity, and is used for grazing herds.

Agriculture in the Lebanon has traditionally been the domain of the private sector. The size of farm holdings is small: more than 60% are smaller than 2ha, and 83% are smaller than five ha. The largest farms are in the Beqaa, and the smallest lie in Mount Lebanon. The owners work their own farms. The most dominant of the crops products is wheat followed by the fruits, vegetables and olives. Agriculture as a sector is responsible for around 15% of the Gross Domestic Product GDP (Lebanon Bank, 2002; and Lebanon Bank, 2005) around 80% of which is mainly vegetables and crops and the rest animal stocks and dairy products. The agricultural sector provides permanent work for around 187,444 people, 31% of



which are women. It also offers seasonal jobs (that are equivalent to 83,592 permanent jobs) of which 52% are women (MoA, 1997; MoA and EU, 1999a, 1999b; FAO, 1997). Lamb, goat and cow farming are mainly active in the upper northern, central and eastern rural mountains of Lebanon. The goats are fed in the fields and thus develop an overgrazing activity, which is endangering the vegetation cover and the endemic flora and fauna. Such activity is preventing many plants from bearing flowers and by that diminishing the population stock of once numerous wild plants and reducing the potential of regeneration of the forest. A grazing management plan should be introduced which could incorporate a goats feeding scheme which might reduce the pressure on certain grazing zones.

#### 6.4.2 Tourism activities

In terms of service activities, Lebanon is classified as a tourist country due to its natural and climatic potential, the mixture of Eastern and Western cultures, the high quality of hospitality and services, as well as its chain of hotels, restaurants and nightlife activities. The Lebanese tourism sector started to develop in the early 1960s. By the year 1974 the tourism industry accounted for around 20% of the GDP (JICA *et al.*, 2004; WTO, 2002). Although Lebanon has a service-based economy, most of the country, except the capital, is less developed in this area. One of the key elements to competitive, sustainable, demand driven tourism is well trained, multi-lingual staff in hostelry, catering and tour guiding. Many skilled employees have migrated to the urban areas and there is a shortage of trained hotel and restaurant workers in the rural regions. Actually tourism offices, tour operators and guides are based in Beirut and Mount Lebanon. Part of this is because the majority of restaurants and hotels and other services are located in Beirut and Mount Lebanon; another reason is the logistical ease that is offered for the tour operators.

Since 1992 the annual rate of increase of tourists coming to Lebanon is around 10%. In 2004 the arrivals through the airport reached more than one million. The WTO predicts that arrivals by the year 2020 will reach 3.7 million visitors. Regional competition for business and cultural heritage tourism, particularly from Cyprus, Turkey, Jordan, Egypt, and the UAE, greatly increased during the last



twenty years (Lebanon Bank, 2005; MoT, 2005). In recent years Lebanon's Diaspora grew to 12 million overseas living in the Americas, Europe, Africa, and Asia. From 1995 to 2000, the Middle East tourism market grew by an average of 10% per year (MoT, 2005; JICA *et al.*, 2004).

The tourism market in Lebanon covers mainly the following types of activities: Leisure, cultural heritage (including religious pilgrims), nature based (including eco and rural), MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions), cruises, health and wellness, and education.

Lebanon's primary demand is for leisure tourism from local, regional Arab, and Gulf tourists as well as overseas Lebanese Diaspora. The regional Arab often visits Lebanon for shopping and dining weekends or during special events. Visitors from the Gulf, who are primarily summer tourists, are mainly interested in escaping the heat for a cooler climate, along with entertainment, good food, and shopping. The Gulf tourists have a higher spending and extended length of stay of two to three weeks. They are not typically culture or nature based tourists, and their primary interest is to stay in Beirut and its surroundings. However, there is a growing awareness of the importance of culture and nature tourism. Leisure tourism includes festivals and entertainment events and should receive more public and private funding and promotion (MoT *et al.*, 1997; UNRCSL, 1998). (ACE *et al.*, 2000).

Cultural Heritage tourism has developed over many years. Foreign tourists most often visit the capital Beirut and major historic cities and towns in search for Cultural Heritage tourism. Their average length of stay is 3 days. Cultural tourism is actually receiving the World Bank's attention for investing in its improvement, as many of Lebanon's archaeological sites are World Heritage sites and are in need of conservation, site management, presentation and interpretation. France, the US, Canada, Germany, Australia, and the UK provided the largest number of arrivals for this type of tourism. This market was much larger in the past than it has been since the nine eleven incident (MoT, 2003; Rows *et al.*, 1998; UNDP, 2003b) (see Figure 6.1). In terms of existing supply of cultural tourism products, the market should be exposed to cultural centres, silk museums, traditional soap



factories, authentic souks (markets), the cultural and natural heritage villages and natural reserves. Handicrafts are an important part of this type of tourism and there is an opportunity to market existing local products,<sup>51</sup> as well as to create new products.

#### 6.4.3 Ecotourism activities

Many natural sites of Lebanon are popular for picnicking and skiing. There is room to increase their regional and international tourism market to include ecotourism activities like caves exploring (speleology), hiking, trekking, mountain biking, snow shoeing, parachuting, paragliding, climbing, rafting and canoeing, as well as other activities such as star gazing, bird watching, sight seeing, and bivouacking (camping). In Lebanon there is also a significant potential for thematic routes, such as the Silk Road, the Olive Road, the Wine Road, the Trail of the Phoenicians and the Roman Road (MoT *et al.*, 1997). On a national scale creative linkage between natural and cultural sites “*itineraries and routes*” is very important. The Holy Cedars and the Qadisha valley like most of the sites offer a combined heritage and nature based tourism and has a potential for itinerary routing (see Figure 1.3).

This type of activity will encourage the tourists to lengthen their stay, experience more of the countryside, have a direct contact with communities and increase their spending through lodging, shopping, and dining (JICA *et al.*, 2004). It will also increase the numbers of foreigners to the natural and cultural sites from Europe (France, Germany, UK, Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, Spain, Britain, Scandinavia and Russia), the Americas (Canada, US, and South America), and East Asia, particularly Japan. . Recently, the Ministry of Tourism and the Ministry of Environment began focusing on nature-based tourism that promotes agro and rural tourism products<sup>52</sup>. Lebanese nature based operators, who usually include cultural heritage products in their itineraries, are now selling to a few local tourists, including school groups, Europeans and expatriates<sup>53</sup>.

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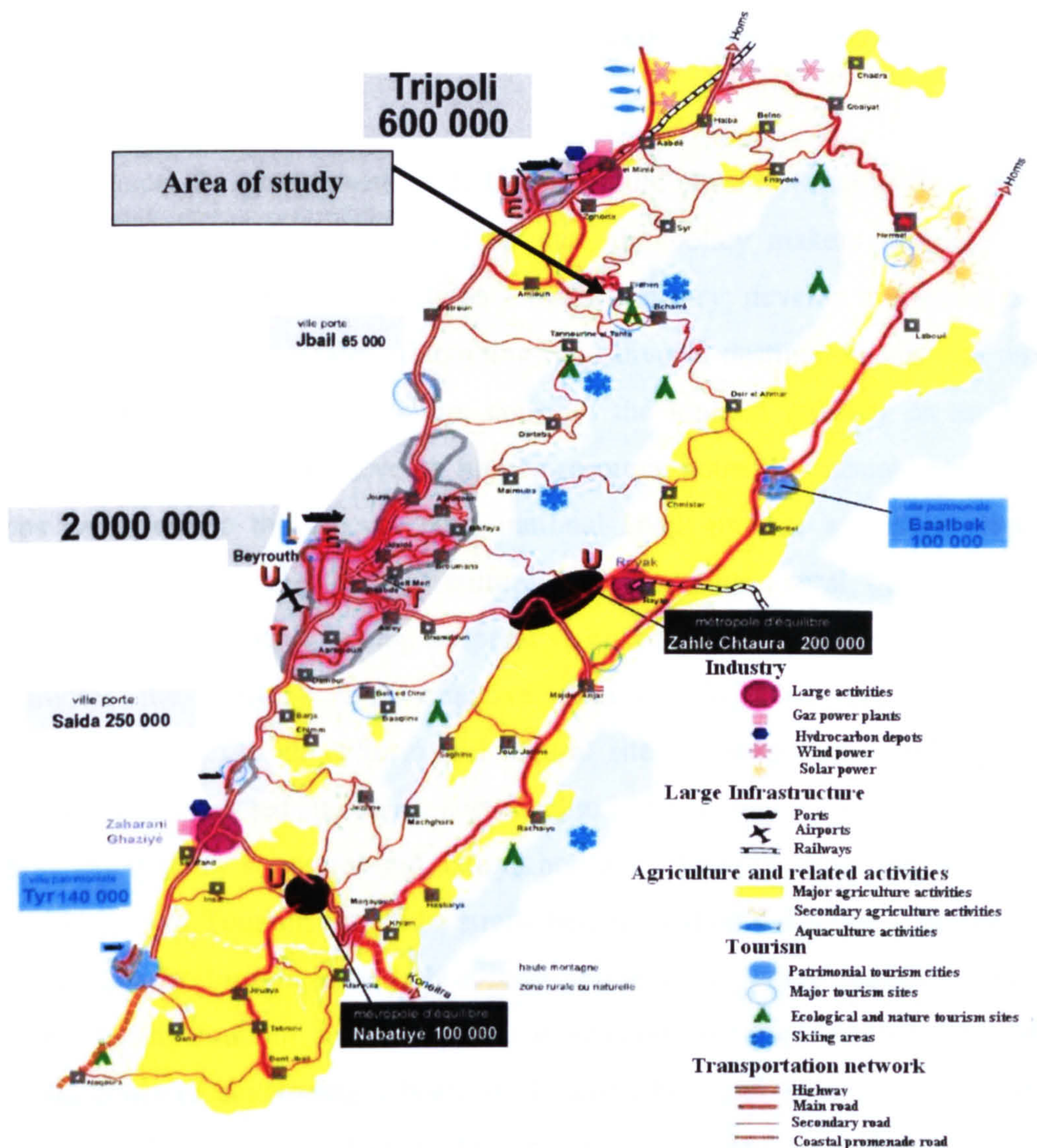
<sup>51</sup> Such as music, glass, pottery, cutlery, abayye (traditional hand made wool or silk overcoat), embroidery, copper, brass, silver, wood, mosaics, jewellery.

<sup>52</sup> MoE, CDR, UNEP and WTO have formed a National Ecotourism Committee.

<sup>53</sup> A USAID study in 2001 identified overseas Lebanese, expatriates, and Europeans as the best target markets for ecotourism.



Figure 6.1 Geographic location of the economic activities in Lebanon



Source: SDATL, 2005

6.4.4 Discussion

For better economic development that creates job opportunities, Lebanon should generate a natural and cultural development management strategy that takes advantages of the country’s tourism and ecotourism potential. The Ministry of Tourism (MoT), which was established in 1966, is the primary government agency charged with the development of Lebanon’s tourism sector. But this ministry lacks financial resources and political commitment at the level of



government. It needs capacity building and strategic planning. There have been attempts to develop tourism plans in 1997 and 2004. But these plans failed to be applied for many reasons the most important of which is the absence of follow-up from the concerned parties and the lack of detailed management strategies. As a result, these plans were not developed, updated or applied (MoT *et al.*, 1997; JICA *et al.*, 2004).

As in France, the government of Lebanon should consider tourism as one of its primary productive sectors. Based on that, the policy makers should support tourism politically and financially as a major industry; develop a positive image about the country as a safe, welcoming, and diverse destination that can attract regional and international tourism; consider the tourism industry an economic generator source that can develop human resource potential through training and jobs and increase the income on a national level; provide attractive tourism segments mainly in the fields of cultural heritage, nature, rural, business, health and education; initiate, a strong, cooperative public-private partnership that jointly promotes the industry with effective domestic, regional and international marketing; preserve all cultural and natural sites to be attractive through well operated and managed site plans; and develop a strong public awareness approach about the country's cultural and natural heritage. Equally important, the role of the Ministry of Tourism should be strengthened. It should develop a strategy that operates under long-term and short-term action plans where feasibility studies related to the tourism sector must be developed and implemented. The MoT should consider developing a National Tourism Plan and Tourism as a Priority. Unlike Turkey, Cyprus, Egypt, Jordan, Israel and Dubai, Lebanon did not recognize tourism as a strategic, economic priority (WTO, 1996a, 1999, 2002, 2003).

In terms of tourism investment, Lebanon has a relatively open economy, with no restrictions on movement of capital out of the country. Bank secrecy is enforced, and foreigners can invest in property and businesses<sup>54</sup>. The government's chronic budget deficit limits the government's ability to invest since it is actually

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<sup>54</sup> Lebanon offers tax exemptions for imported goods and equipment for tourism projects. The Value Added Tax (VAT) is controversial with the private sector. It taxes people on their ability to spend and is considered an equitable tax.



borrowing to finance in building schools, hospitals and infrastructure as well as paying salaries for the army, police and civil servants. This debt keeps interest rates high and raises the cost of the private sector's investment on tourism and ecotourism projects. Lebanon is uniquely rich in cultural and natural heritage. It has a vast rural potential in a number of *tourism segments* including: cultural heritage, nature, agro, rural health, education, and MICE<sup>55</sup>. Its natural and Archaeological sites are spread all over the rural parts of the country and need conservation and promotion strategies. Most of the hotels, restaurants and other tourism services are located in Beirut (Rows *et al.*, 1998). This situation is one of the major causes of rural out-migration to the city. With proper development, promotion and marketing policies and strategies this tourism sector can offer significant economic growth and can give a chance for rural residents to return to their villages.

### **6.5 The Social assets and problems that Lebanon faces**

In terms of human capital there is no census in Lebanon. Lately and during the years 1994-1996, a population and housing survey on 70,000 people was conducted by the Ministry of Social Affairs in cooperation with the United Nations Population Fund, making available for the first time data on population and development in the country. According to this study the total resident population ranges between 4-4.2 millions. The results indicate that Lebanon does not suffer from dramatic population growth, or from a high rate of infant mortality or illiteracy. Nevertheless Lebanon suffers from over-population on the coast, mainly in the greater Beirut area (the municipality of Beirut and its suburbs), with serious impacts on increased poverty and on the environment. Lebanon's birth rate is around (25 ‰) whereas the fertility rate varies remarkably between regions (CAS, 1997).

The mapping of the living conditions in Lebanon, (1998) a joint project between the Ministry of Social Affairs and the United Nation Development Program, measured the degree of satisfaction of the basic needs in Lebanon for households and individuals and deduced the regional, demographic, economic and social

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<sup>55</sup>(Meetings/Incentives/Conference/Exhibition)



characteristics of the population<sup>56</sup>(CAS, 1997). The study revealed that the percentage of population with a very low degree of satisfaction towards the services needed for livelihood is present more in rural areas than in urban areas (see Table 6.2) (UNDP, 2003b).

**Table 6.2 Livelihood Conditions in Lebanon**

Livelihood conditions	Households' %	Individuals %
Very low	07.1	06.8
Low	25.0	28.4
Intermediate	41.6	42.2
High	21.9	19.3
Very high	04.5	03.3
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: (CAS, 1997).

The existing social and regional disparity raises questions about the state sustainability of social integration, stability and hence, emphasises the need for the government to make regional deprivation a major priority for future action. It is to be noted that the degree of deprivation increased dramatically when it came to education and income related indicators. Deprivation expressed by low-income levels in Lebanon is more widespread than other forms of deprivation related to the availability of basic needs and social services. As for education, the school enrolment ratio is 88% and the illiteracy rate is around 13.6% (females 17.8%, males 9.2%). Concerning the of services, there is a physician for each 1,000 inhabitant and 95% of the population have access to health services and to safe drinking water and 63% of the people have access to sanitation (UNDP 1996-1998). In terms of the government's expenditures (% of the 1999 budget) 3 to 4 % was spent on health, 6% on education, 2 to 3% on community and social services (MoSA and UNDP, 1998). As for the standard of living it is estimated to be around 5000 US \$ per-capita. In order to improve these living conditions, there is a need for direct intervention to provide basic social services, direct income generation and direct assistance.

The Lebanese civil war (1975-1990) was one of the main causes of poverty. The 16 years of internal conflicts that started in 1974 has dramatically aggravated poverty and hindered the implementation of any poverty reduction strategy. The

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<sup>56</sup>Based on the study of 214,000 households, 32.1% live below the national threshold of satisfaction of the basic needs (CAS, 1997).



years of war resulted in a devastating blow to the physical and human infrastructure as well as to the public and private institutions in the country<sup>57</sup>. These developments aggravated poverty and reduced the average real income of the Lebanese. In this context, the inflation rate average was 120% during the years of strife and reached more than 400% between 1987 and 1988, which affected the purchasing power of wages and salaries. This led to the decline in the size of the middle class that had played a crucial role in the development of the Lebanese economy (Nehme, 2001; MoSA and UNDP, 1998). A clear manifestation is the decrease in economic growth rate from 7% in 1993-1994 to practical stagnation on the eve of the year 2000 (Labaki, 1986; UNDP, 2003b; Lebanon Bank, 2002).

In the private sector during the last forty years Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Community Based Associations (CBA), Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), Syndicates and various other groups of the society have been quite active. Civil Society Organizations CSOs are working in rural areas with government institutions in delivering a wide range of services through identifying priorities, planning and implementing projects and accessing donors' funds (Bennet, 1995; Majdalani, 1999). Their activities are mainly in the fields of environment, health, human rights, and human development through enforcement of international conventions, promoting participation in political life, democracy and parliament-civil society dialogue ((UNRCSL-CCA, 1998). The social and economic disparity has given rise to a new form of cooperation and partnership between the CSOs<sup>58</sup> and some line ministries mainly the Ministry of Social Affairs (MSA), the municipal and rural affairs and the Ministry of Environment (MoE). Their role is emerging as parties that offer services to underserved rural and peripheral villages in an efficient and sustainable manner. The number of CSOs<sup>59</sup> in Lebanon varies between 1,600 and 4,000 (Bennet, 1995; Majdalani, 1999).

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<sup>57</sup>The UN estimates the cost of the conflict is more than US\$ 25 billion in terms of physical assets and infrastructure.

<sup>58</sup>These CSOs are now executing joint projects with these ministries that are partly financed by the ministries the government as well as local and international donors.

<sup>59</sup>The UNDP in-house database indicates that there are 135 active CSOs, ten of which are in the field of agriculture, eleven in rural development, 74 in the environment and heritage conservation fields and the rest in various other sectors (Majdalani, 1999; Misk,1998).



Due to the large discrepancies in data it is difficult to define exactly the number of Civil Society Organizations (CSO) that are directly involved in rural and agricultural development as well as their geographic outreach. It can be deduced that most of these organizations have recently turned to income-generating projects and small credit schemes. Their mode of intervention has moved towards regional and rural development by raising awareness and improving rural community participation.

In Lebanon there are social and economic facts that should be taken into consideration. There are drastic income inequalities between the different social groups (Gini Coefficient – 0.435 in 1997) in the different economic sectors (ASC, 1998). There is also regional disparity between the rural and urban regions. Indicators of poverty in the rural areas revealed a poor quality of life that is manifested in inadequacy of basic public services, high illiteracy rate, limited types of economic activities, low income levels. There is also a gap difference between the level of income and the cost of living, whereby the basic needs which includes the cost of health and education services are not offered. The provision of social services and the national social policy partially exist, but the social safety nets are disorganized, leaving the elderly, the unemployed, the handicapped and the other marginalized groups under-protected.

In the upper rural parts of the country basic social services are poor, especially education (including vocational) and health, and there are low economic investments that are present. Many rural residents are migrating to the major cities located on the coast in search for basic services and employment. As a result sixty percent of the Lebanese people are now living on the coastal zone which covers 16% of Lebanon's total surface. The population density in this part of the country is 1,610 persons per Km<sup>2</sup> in comparison with 365 persons per Km<sup>2</sup> at the upper rural area (Bekaa and Hermel) density is 120 persons per Km<sup>2</sup> (CDR, ECODIT-IAURIF, 1997; CDR, IAURIF, 1999, Faour, 1996).

In the period between 1961 and 2002 the rural population has decreased dramatically from 1.1 million to only 353,000 whereas the urban population has dramatically increased from 775,000 to 3.2 million, resulting in an urbanization



level of approximately 90%. Consequently, the agricultural population has also decreased significantly to about 123,000 or only 3.5% of the total population in 2001 (CAS, 1997; Lebanon Bank, 2002, MoE and LEDO, 2002; Touma, 1986). Such a phenomenon is exerting a lot of pressure on the coastal zone. It is causing major problems with the social fabric, natural resources and infrastructure. Having only 25% of Lebanon's total 10,452 km<sup>2</sup> area of available for agriculture while the rest is mountainous, hilly, rocky and non-cultivated, necessitates the search for another source of income for the local rural communities (LARI *et al.*, 2004; METAP, 1995).

Meanwhile, the rural residents are resorting to ways and means of generating revenue which are not only short term in nature but also harmful to the environment and to the economy (Lawlence, 1987). Wood charcoal making is one of the illegal activities that is taking place in the northern central and southern mountainous regions of Lebanon. They are posing a direct threat to the trees by speeding the rate of deforestation. Some tree species could be grown again but due to overgrazing these will only grow as small bushes. Other species of trees such as fir and juniper (*Abies ciliciaca* and *Juniperus excelsa*), once cut are difficult to re-introduce. There are other damaging activities such as quarrying, hunting, the deliberate fires to generate wood charcoal and excessive grazing (Ecodit *et al.*, 2001; MO E, 2002).

Traditional land-use practices such as terracing and customary grazing<sup>60</sup> did help to protect the land over centuries. Up until 1975, 160,000 ha of the terraces were maintained and cultivated, but now after cultivated only 90,000 ha is left, of which only 60% are being maintained. The result is an irreversible loss of topsoil from the mountain sides, a degraded vegetation cover and a threat to the biodiversity<sup>61</sup> (MoA and UNEP, 1996b; MoA, 2003).

One of the reasons for environmental degradation is the drastic reduction in population. It is creating a state of negligence, abuse and lack of understanding of

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<sup>60</sup> This practice is known as "Hima" and requires the rotation in selecting land for grazing.

<sup>61</sup> Assessment studies have estimated the cost of rehabilitation of old terraces at about \$250 million (on the basis of \$6,000-8000/hectare) (MoA, 2003).



the importance of natural resources. It has also contributed to the loss of local cultural and agricultural traditions and practices (Faour, 1991; 1996; Mission Irfed-Liban, 1960; CDR, 2004; MoSA and UNFPA, 2000). If these terraces and vegetation covers continue to degrade, they will lead to socio-economic losses and breakdowns of community based social structures, and reinforce patterns of rural-migration and consequent urban poverty (MoSA and UNFPA, 2000).

## **6.6 The governments' strategy**

Lebanon became part of Turkey's Ottoman Empire in the 16<sup>th</sup> century which was later dissolved by the end of the First World War and a Lebanese democratic republic was created (Gannam, 2000; Labaki, 1986). A Variety of societies now enrich the actual Lebanon and have progressively become socio-political communities and shared balanced powers. Administratively Lebanon is divided into six departments (Mohafazas) that are in turn sub-divided into 24 districts (Cazas) (see Figure 6.2). There are around 1,300 towns and 707 municipalities (local governments) in the country, which are headed by mayors.

Lebanon together with the EU constituted the Contracting Parties to the Barcelona Convention that took place in 1977. This convention was launched under the auspices of the UNEP, through the Mediterranean Action Plan (MAP). It was revised in 1995. This agreement with its protocols constitutes the legal framework for the protection of the environment and sustainable development in Lebanon. It focuses on cooperation for the protection of the Mediterranean Sea from pollution. It also stresses on preserving the protected Areas' biological diversity. Lebanon has also participated in the World Summit at Rio in 1992 and in the World Summit (Rio + 10) on sustainable Development. It has so far been active in executing many small projects that fall under the umbrella of Agenda 21<sup>62</sup> (MoE and LEDO, 2002) (see chapter 3).

The government has also participated in other international and regional activities and conventions the most important of which are:

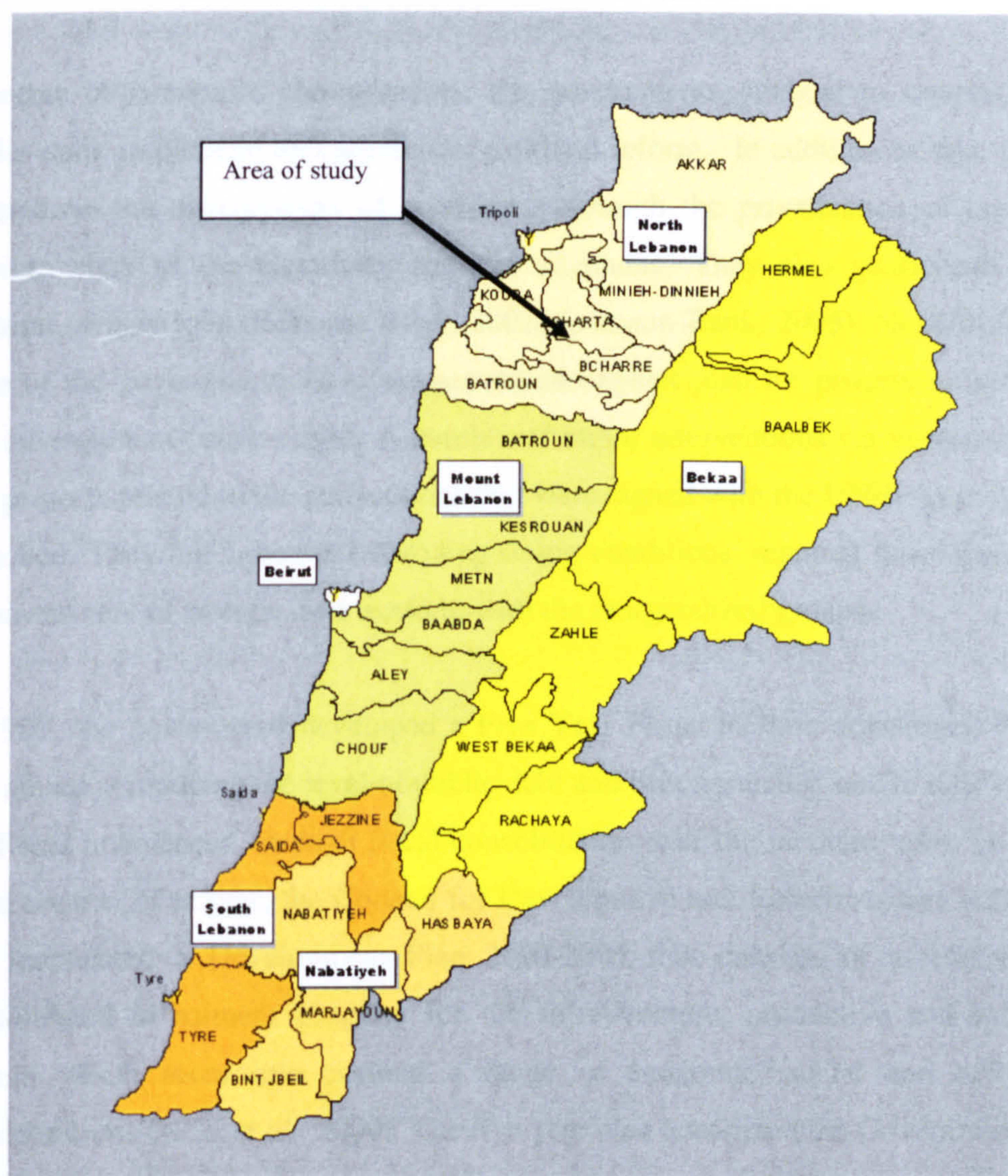
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<sup>62</sup> Capacity Building, Institutional Strengthening (Local Agenda 21), Agro-diversity and Biodiversity, Climate Change and Combat Desertification funded by the UNDP, the Montreal Protocol and GEF.



- Protocol concerning Specially Protected areas, Geneva and was ratified in 1994;
- Convention for the protection of the Ozone layer, Vienna 1985;
- Convention on Climate Change, New York 1992 and was ratified in 1994;
- Convention on Biodiversity, Rio 1992 and was ratified in 1994;
- Convention on Desertification, Paris 1994 and was ratified in 1996;
- Copenhagen Global Summit on Social Development March, 1995;
- Protocol on limiting greenhouse emissions, Kyoto 1997.

**Figure 6.2 Lebanon is divided into 24 administrative districts (Cazas)**



Source: SDATL, 2005



Post-war Lebanese governments (1990-2004) with their respective agendas focused mainly on the reconstruction of the damaged infrastructure, as well as on monetary stabilization<sup>63</sup>. Although the recent governments have recognized poverty and environment as priority issues, the formulation of policies and strategies for poverty alleviation and environment preservation are issues that have still to be addressed. The recent governments' agendas promised to focus on social development through a balanced and equitable development in all the regions as well as on the reduction of the burden of poor living conditions. They also promised to promote culture, improve the provision of social services through community participation in decision-making.

In terms of economic commitments, the governments pledged to control the public debt, implement and administer juridical reform. In addition to that, they insisted on the development of enterprises through the privatization of certain services such as the electricity and the telephone. They also guaranteed the creation of new jobs (Lebanon Bank, 2002; Lebanon Bank, 2005). Nevertheless, none of the governments have announced an explicit plan for poverty reduction and environment conservation. A number of minor interventions via programmes and projects related to the conventions that were signed with the UNEP have been launched. They are aimed at improving living conditions, regional development, empowerment of women, and working with the marginalized groups.

In 1999, the government developed a Five Year Fiscal Reform adjustment Plan that aimed at reducing the level of public debt and debt servicing, and to deal with the fiscal imbalances, through fiscal consolidation over the medium term. In the same context of reform, the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR) has formulated a Development Plan 2000-2005 that consists of a five year consolidated investment program for the infrastructure, productive and social sectors which takes into account a range of economic, social and service considerations (ACE *et al.*, 2000). The five year plan confirmed the Government's

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<sup>63</sup>Such policy was done at a high public cost. Although monetary stability was reinforced and inflation was reduced, the accumulated public debt that used to finance the reconstruction program has reached an estimated amount of US \$ 23 billion, or 140% of the GDP by end March 2000. It has also produced a reduction in the real spending on basic social services and other forms of support to the poor (Lebanon Bank, 2002).



earlier commitment to focus on balanced development with an emphasis on under-served and neglected areas as a means of improve living conditions. But so far the government has not fulfilled its obligations. There is no clear rural development policy and strategy to combat poverty. Unemployment is still rising and the public debt has reached an alarming level. Agriculture, one of the main productive sectors is suffering form competition from neighbouring countries. There is a need to introduce new source of revenue to Lebanon.

In Lebanon, the sustainable development strategy is not yet clearly defined, but the government is trying to implement projects in the context of sustainable development. Its planning policies and procedures are definitely “top-down”, but there is an effort by the government to decentralize the administration especially to the level of municipalities. The government has recently set-up a Parliament Environment Committee headed by the ex-minister of environment. So far this committee has not been activated. Equally, a national code of the environment has been issued and needs an implementation framework (MoE, 1998; UNDP, 2003b).

## 6.7 Discussion

As previously discussed, the term *Sustainable Development* covers environmental social, economic and governance aspects. It deals with issues such as preserving ecological processes, protecting the human heritage and biodiversity. It is also concerned with finding ecological, social, production, technological, international and administrative systems to solve problems of that nature. In order for sustainable development to address all this, it needs an action plan, which is well defined as per the Agenda 21 recommendations. This plan should cover environmental, social, cultural and economic aspects while emphasizing the conservation and management of natural resources.

The plan should strengthen the role of the communities to generate a development strategy for their region. The strengthening can be accomplished by “capacity building” through “awareness campaigns” to reach a change in behaviour, and a transformation from activities and processes that abuse the natural resources to alternatives that respect its limitations. Another role for the government is to agree



on the setting of a CSD (Commission on Sustainable Development) for a follow-up process. One of the major keys for the success of a sustainable development plan is the willingness of the Governments to implement the Agenda 21 requirements, and to put the needs of the region on the government's priority list. So far this has not been done.

As Livelihood Development depends on environmental, social, economic and governance factors. It is involved with issues such as ecological processes, cultural heritage and biodiversity. A social factor such as poverty is one of the major enemies that threatens the environment (ecology and biodiversity) and causes rural depopulation. To reduce rural depopulation, the government of Lebanon should develop a policy that enhances the status of living and minimizes poverty. This is done by intervening on three different levels, a *macro*, a *meso* and a *micro*.

On a **Macro** level the intervention should focus mainly on creating an enabling, economic, social and physical environment for poverty reduction through long-term policies that target the impoverished mechanisms in the country. This type of intervention is preventive and takes place at the level of formulating social, and environment policies. It should address the underlying causes of poverty and improve economic, social, and environmental legislation (taxes, labour, natural resources and zoning regulations) (World Bank, 1994; World Bank, 2003).

On a **Meso** level, the intervention should address two levels *sectoral* and *regional*. The *Sectoral* scale (medium to short-term) should include health, education, housing, agriculture and tourism. On a *Regional* scale, the intervention should improve the living conditions and standard of services in the deprived regions through local development programmes. It should elaborate a national strategy for rural development to slow down the mechanisms of regional disparity and to create new sources of income. It should also promote private sector economic activity; provide the services and necessary assistance to special social groups mainly women and unemployed. Finally, it should provide the appropriate environment for an effective poverty reduction strategy in order to ensure sustainability. Such an enabling environment would include promoting



networking, building capacity and empowering of targeted communities, participation of beneficiaries as well as linking separate interventions under the same framework.

On a **Micro** scale, the intervention should deal mainly with the consequences of deprivation as well as with its cause. It should aim at providing direct assistance to socially weak and vulnerable categories at the micro-level within the meso-program framework. It entails responding to the direct needs of a *small community*, a specific weak and vulnerable household or group of individuals and a particular organization or institution. The intervention could take the form of projects (study and implementation) and services for income-generation, training, empowerment, awareness, health care and efficient well-targeted social assistance.

## 6.8 Conclusion

There is a major problem facing the rural areas in Lebanon. It is characterized by rural exodus to the urban areas. This phenomenon is creating a negative impact on the rural regions rendering them subject to neglect, abuse and deforestation. The research has revealed that sustainable development and rural livelihood could represent a solution to the problem. It can be done through tackling poverty alleviation in the rural areas. This goal can be reached by forcing the government through active NGOs, academia and other unions to adopt a Sustainable Rural Livelihood Policy. This strategy should be based on a holistic planning approach that focuses on preserving, protecting and enhancing essential renewable and non-renewable natural resources and cultural heritage.

The government should set economic, social and productive goals that are sustainable over the long-term for future generation in the framework of a political system that secures effective citizen participation in decision-making by adopting an approach towards the NGOs, the CBAs, the CSOs, the unions and the academia which is described as a “bottom-up” process. In addition, the government should aim at building national consensus and devise ways for “capacity building” such as developing “human resources” and strengthening the capacities of existing institutions.



In other words Sustainable Rural Development is achieved through proper governance, management of wildlife and natural resources and is applied by the use of local authorities and communities. It is important for the national government to give priority to the design of policies and programmes that support the rural household income and play a major role in combating poverty. Lebanon is rich in natural capital mainly geology, topography, climate and biodiversity. These characteristics facilitate the development of a diversified package of rural projects to create local (rural) productive employment opportunities like ecotourism and arts and craft development projects and thus reduce poverty and out-migration to the urban areas through the creation of a job market in the rural areas.

Although consecutive governments recognized the importance of environment, tourism and ecotourism, priority namely on improving living conditions, they did not integrate them in major policies or strategies. As a result, no enhancement of the country's rural livelihood and social conditions has taken place (CDR, 1994, 1997, 1999, and 2004; Fawaz, 2002). Equally, there is no serious attempt by these governments to decentralize the administration to focus on strengthening the role of other groups (Barakat, 2005). In other words, these governments have failed to develop a strategy that takes advantages of the natural and cultural assets.

Interviews with the directors of tourism, environment and urban planning revealed the need for a series of sustainable tourism, environment and land-use action plans to be developed and implemented (see Appendix 3). According to the interviewees these strategies must be based on guidelines that are inspired by local Agenda 21, discussed in chapter 3. The interviewees also favoured the decentralisation of the government's management process mainly at the local level i.e. the municipalities<sup>64</sup>. This decentralisation would directly engage the municipalities (local governments) in the development, implementation and monitoring process of their own regions. In addition to that the government did not allocate resources that enable people to put ideas for more sustainable alternatives into practice. It did not put in enough effort to raise public awareness about "environmental problems" and their negative impacts, and to develop



income generating activities in sectors like ecotourism (Fawaz, 2002, Mallat, 1997; Nehme, 2001; UNDP, 2000).

Finally the research concludes that to achieve Sustainable Environmental and Rural Livelihood Development, the Lebanese government, in collaboration with the concerned ministries and public institutions, must combat rural poverty by developing a strategy that focuses on preserving, protecting and enhancing essential renewable and non-renewable natural resources and cultural heritage; implementing a governance policy that secures effective citizen participation in decision-making, by adopting a “bottom-up” process approach towards the Non Governmental Organisations (NGO), and Civil Society Organizations (CBO); applying an economic system that is able to generate surpluses and technical knowledge on a self-reliant and sustainable basis, a social system that provides solutions for the tensions arising from disharmonious development, and a production system that respects the obligation to preserve the ecological basis for development and a technological system that can search for new solutions; adopting an international solution system that fosters sustainable patterns of trade and finance, and an administrative system that is flexible and has the capacity for self-correction and which uses the local and national governments, communities and NGOs as major means for the project’s implementation. In an operational scheme the government of Lebanon should develop a rural livelihood strategy that revives and changes the quality of growth, meets the essential needs for jobs, food, energy, sanitation and water. It also has to ensure population growth, conserve and enhance resource base, manage risks, and finally merge technology, environment and economics in decision making.

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<sup>64</sup> This is not the case right now since the head of the municipality has very limited budget powers.



## **7 Qadisha-Cedars case study in Lebanon**



## **7.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter it was clear that on a Macro level, Lebanon has the natural, social, economic and governance basis to reach a rural livelihood strategy. But its national government lacks the willingness to develop this strategy as well as to produce a mechanism to apply it. This chapter launches an investigation into a selected critical case study the Qadisha-Cedars. It underscores the area's needs and potential for developing a "livelihood strategy", it being a typical case (see para 2.2.2). The enquiry process is done in the context of guide lines and recommendations derived from previous chapters.

As discussed in chapter three concerning the basis for a livelihood policy, the Qadisha-Cedars region like the national parks discussed previously, possesses a variety of cultural and natural assets and a pleasant climate. It also has a group of local governments (municipalities) and NGOs (see para 3.5.1). These characteristics help to develop future recreational and site management schemes.

The natural and cultural assets need to be highlighted, maintained and sustainably used. In this respect this chapter explores the possibility of introducing a "rural livelihood management framework" that defines ways to conserve the natural and cultural assets of the site. The framework will include environmentally friendly leisure projects that guarantee appropriate and sustainable development for the region and by that hope to combat poverty and reduce rural depopulation. This can be possible through the involvement of the local residents in the development and management of their region (World Bank, 1990a, 1990b, 2003).

## **7.2 Criteria for the selection of the Qadisha Cedars case study**

The Qadisha-Cedars is located at a close proximity to urban developments, which endangers its existence, and requires immediate intervention to stop damaging its ecosystem. It also has great potential of vegetation cover that is renewable and can grow again after cutting, in addition to non-renewable natural assets (UNDP, 2000; 2003b; 2004) (see Figure 6.1).



Similar to most of the upper rural areas of Lebanon, this region of study is facing a continuous migration of its young and productive population to the coastal zone and mainly to the capital Beirut. By this its productive stock of human population is diminishing to a low level where many of the traditional artisan as well as farming crafts and costumes are in danger of becoming extinct. The major activities that exist in this region are sheep, goat and cow herding, charcoal production and some construction, art and handicrafts (Labaki, 1986; Mallat, 1997; MoSA and UNFPA, 2000). So far the surrounding communities have not understood the value of preserving these sites to enable them to profit from their advantages. Equally, the Cedar trees, together with the natural and cultural assets of the valley of Qadisha site are under threat from adventure sports activities and uncontrolled constructions (Green Line, 2001; MoA, 2003; MoE and UNDP, 2002).

### **7.3 Physical description of the area of study**

The Cedars and the valley of Qadisha are located in the upper central part of Mount Lebanon at an altitude between 900 and 2000 metres above sea level in the north-eastern section of Lebanon. They are part of the administrative cazas of Bcharre and Zogharta<sup>65</sup>. They are 30 km away from the northern metropolis of Tripoli, the second largest city in Lebanon (see Figures 7.1 and 7.7).

The area of study is composed of two major sites:

- The Cedars reserve<sup>66</sup>, and its skiing centre;
- The Qadisha valley and the surrounding fourteen villages (see Figure 7.1).

The total area of the region is around 3,000 hectares and is composed of 23 villages<sup>67</sup>. The major valleys crossing the Caza include the Qozhaya, Qannoubine, and Qadisha and the main river crossing the valley is the Qadisha River.

The study area is divided into three topographic zones:

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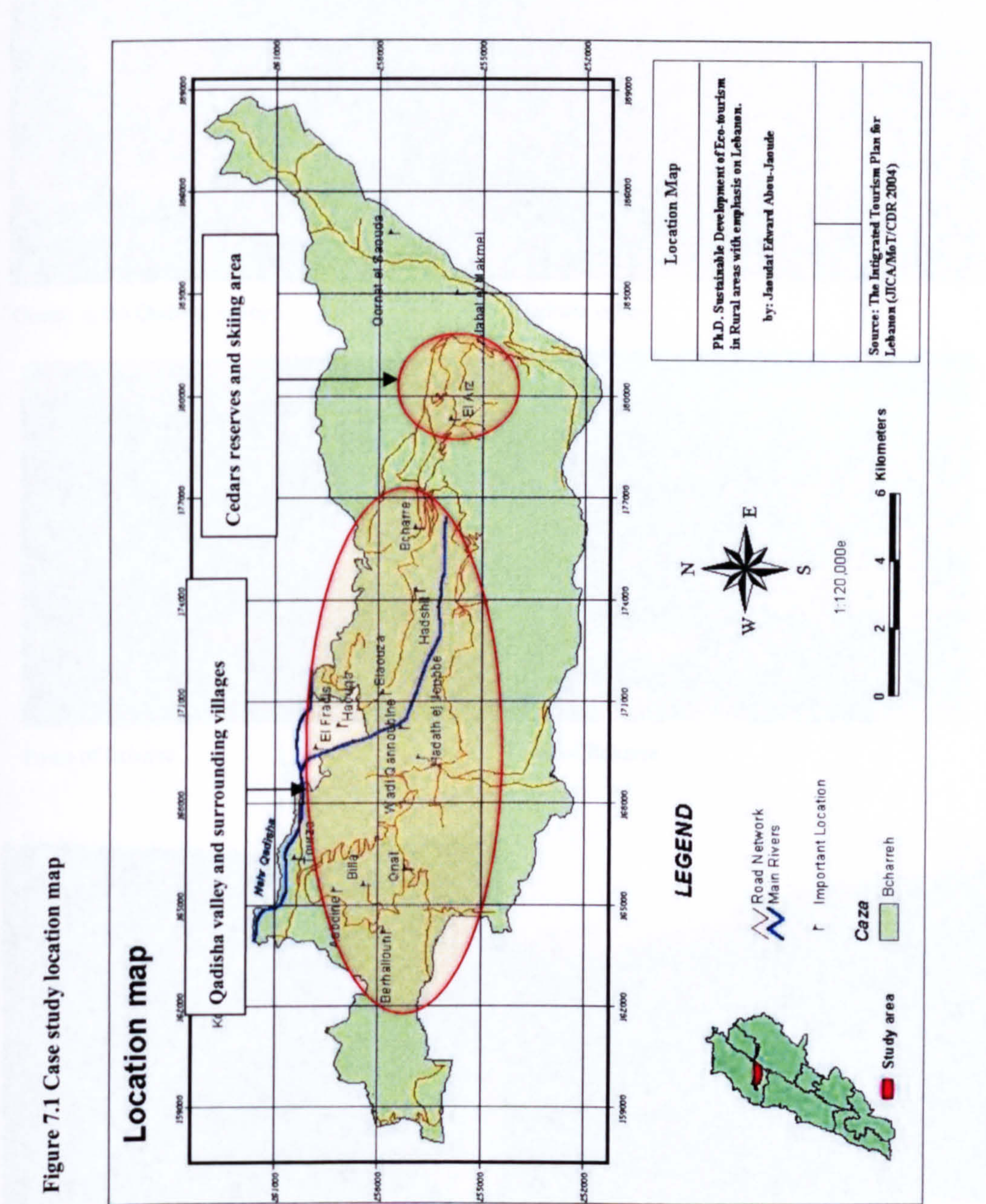
<sup>65</sup>Lebanon is divided into six administrative departments (Mouhafaza or Governorate) and are headed each by a Mouhafez. These regions are in turn sub-divided into 26 districts (Cazas), which are headed by a Kaem-Makam (mayor).

<sup>66</sup>The Cedar is the national symbol of the country

<sup>67</sup>There are around 1,300 towns and 707 municipalities in the country. Each town that has a municipality is headed by a mayor. Some of the municipalities form a union of municipalities.



- A zone for valleys: it includes the valleys of Qadisha and Qannoubine and the Qadisha River. It has an altitude range varying from 900 to 1400 metres.
- A zone of villages: it includes the villages situated above the valley starting from Hadath El-Jobbé passing by Bcharre and reaching Ehden. The altitude range varies between 1400 and 1600 metres.
- A zone of mountains: it consists of a group of mountains together with the Cedars reserve. Its altitude ranges from 1600 to 2000 metres.

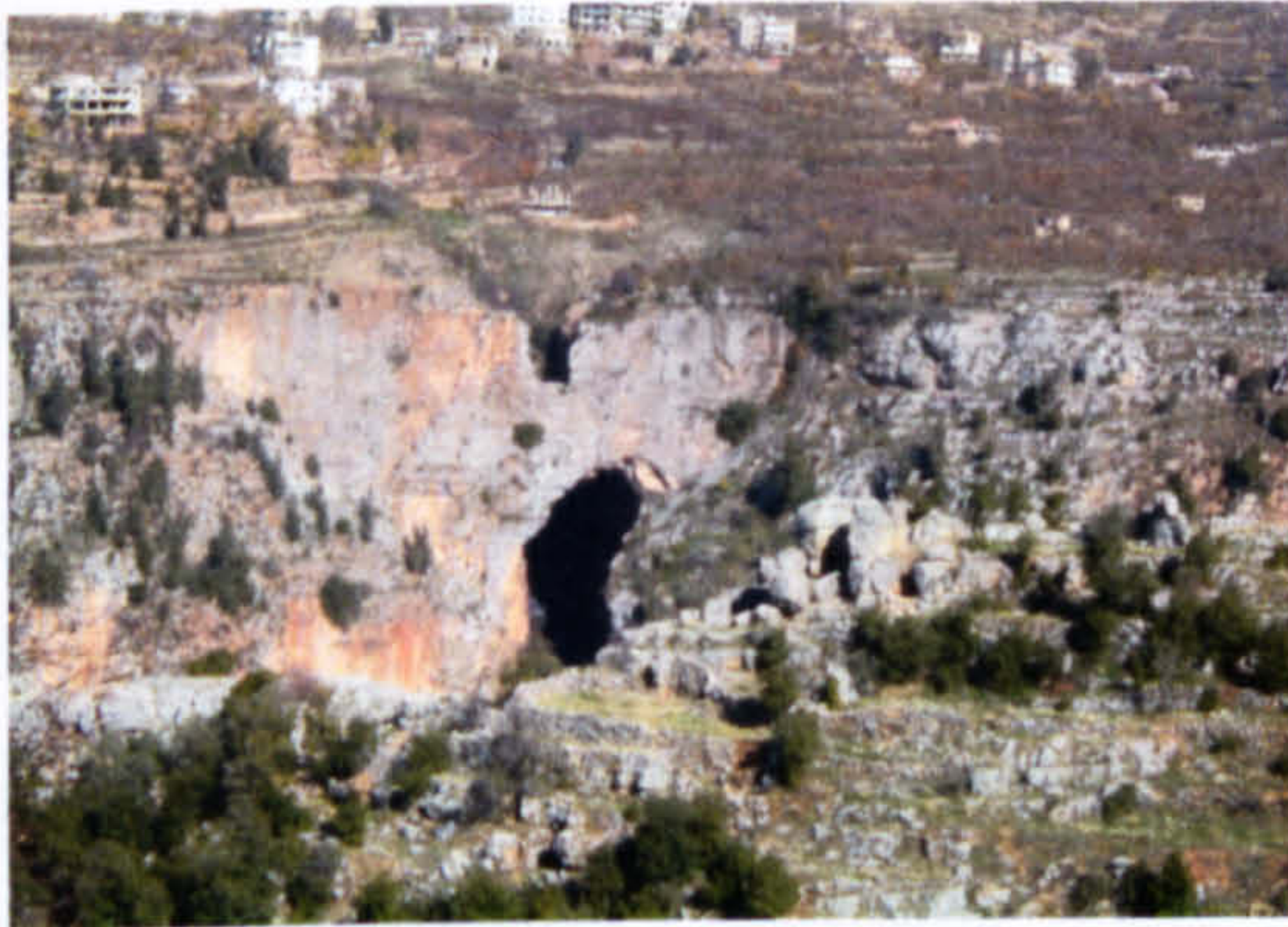


The Qadisha valley is formed of two main valleys separated by Mount St. Elie (1744metres): they are the Qozhaya valley, within which the Mar Sarkiss River



flows and the Qannoubine valley through which the Qadisha River flows. The Qadisha valley forms an “L” shape where it extends from the highest point below the Qadisha Grotto with an eastern direction, towards Blaouza’s village. It extends towards the North and meets with the Qozhaya valley at Mazraat En-Nahr (Figure 7.2 and Appendices 13 and 15).

**Figure 7.2 Natural and Cultural landscape in the Qadisha-Cedars**



Grotto at the Qadisha valley



Qadisha valley



Town of Bcharre



Town of Bcharre



Qadisha valley landscape



Qadisha valley landscape

The valley is characterized by its rich landscape, its high rocky cliffs, the Cedars Forest, the widespread caves and sinkholes, vegetation, old monasteries, and



villages that form a harmonized equilibrium with its mountains. Several panoramic viewpoint locations for the valley and the mountains are dispersed along the valley surroundings. Its Waterfalls have created a very nice visual aspect as they fall from the top of the mountains and the top of the valley forming natural bridges at some places and flowing into the valley. A large number of caves and sinkholes and other natural cavities are located among the valley (Figure 7.2 and Appendices 13 and 15).

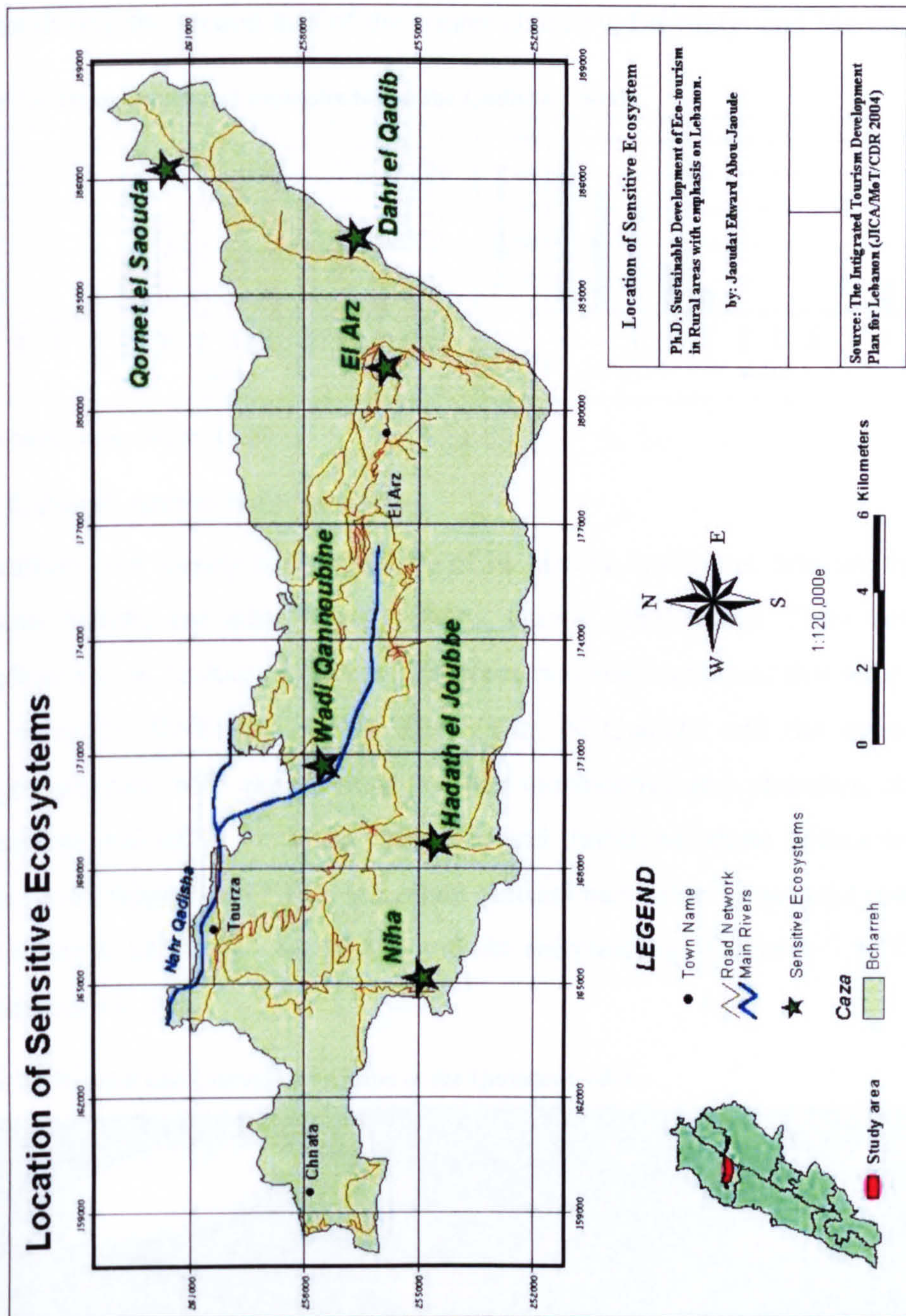
### 7.3.1 Qadisha-Cedars ecosystem

Similar to the Cévennes region in France, Bcharre district embraces a great variety of microclimate and habitats harbouring high biodiversity, assemblages of conifers, deciduous and evergreen broadleaves distributed along altitudinal zones, diverse under-bushes comprising many rare and endemic species and a great variety of flowering and medicinal plants. The floral base provides richness in habitat, shelters and food resources for a highly diverse fauna. Biodiversity in this area can be characterized according to the vegetation levels, which contain distinct types of vegetation with their accompanying plant communities and groupings of plants (MoA and EU, 1999a; 1999b; MoA and UNEP, 1996a; Nehme, 2001; Tohme *et al.*, 1985, 2002; Speleo Club du Liban, 1998; 1989) (see Figures 7.3 and appendix 15).

The study area exposes a variety of rock formations ranging in age from the Lower Jurassic to Upper Cretaceous with various structural features. The Jurassic formations are mainly outcropping in the Qadisha and Qannoubine valleys. The lower cretaceous formations predominate in the villages located above the valley. The upper cretaceous formations are apparent in the elevated areas where the highest mountains exist, as at Qornet El Saouda (3088 metres). Structurally the area under investigation is composed of beds gently dipping toward the NW. Four sets of faults are present in the area: these are the N-S, the NW-SE, the E-W and the NE-SW faults.



Figure 7.3 Ecosystem in the Qadisha-Cedars

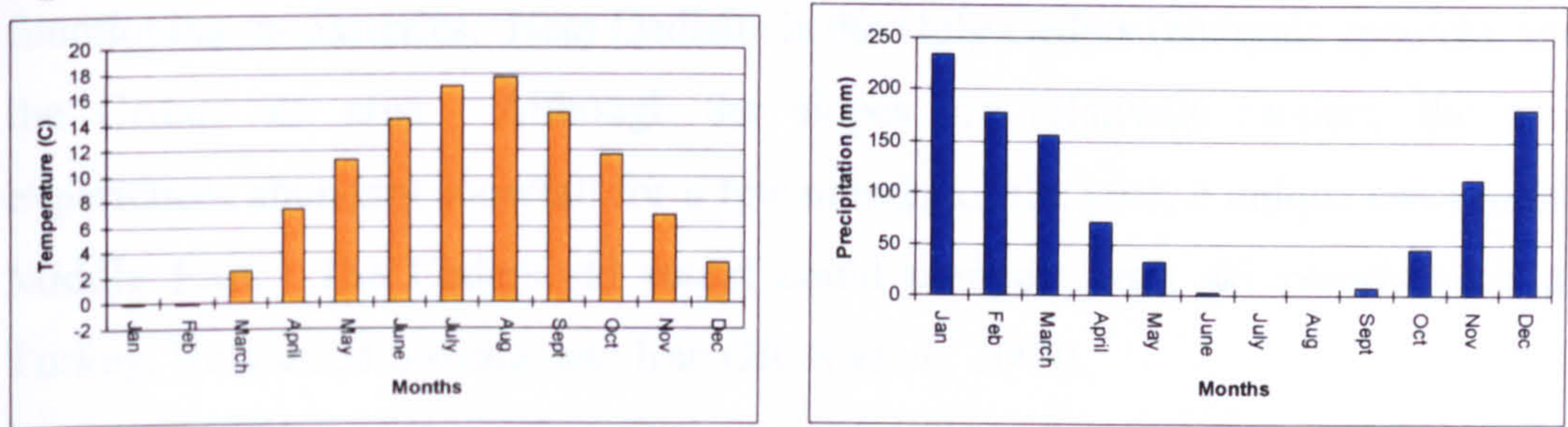


In the study area, the average annual temperature is about 9 °C. The maximum temperature is reached in the month of August with an average record of 17.7 °C, and the average minimum temperature is around 0 °C during the month of January (see Figure 7.4). An average precipitation rate of around 950-1050 mm is recorded in the study area. The registered data on precipitation shows that the maximum rate is reached in January with 235 mm while the minimum is in July and August when no rainfall occurs (MPWT *et al.*, 1995) (see Figure 7.4). The wind direction varies along the different months and has a dominant yearly direction of North-West, and the wind speed varies throughout the year from 0 to 15 m/second. Wind speeds are



highest during the second half of the winter (January, February, and March)<sup>68</sup>.

**Figure 7.4 Temperature and precipitation in the Qadisha-Cedars**



Source: Atlas Climatique du Liban, 1982

7.3.2 Cultural, natural heritage assets

The culture of a society is a composite of its history, traditions, arts, architecture, religious beliefs, and educational systems, among other things. These resources are referred to as “cultural heritage”. They are non-renewable and that what makes them valuable (UNESCO, 1998). The Valley of Qadisha and the surrounding villages are rich with this heritage of old monasteries and churches, ruins of monuments and mills for wheat and olive and traditional stone houses with red bricks roofs. Appendix 14 lists important cultural and natural resources present in most villages of the Bcharre Caza and its surroundings (Figures 7.5; 7.6 and Appendices 14; 16).

**Figure 7.5 Natural and Cultural landscape in the Qadisha-Cedars**



Convent St Antonios at the Valley

Qadisha valley landscape

<sup>68</sup> There exists only one meteorological station in the study area, which is located at the Cedars.



The Holy Qadisha valley is certainly unique as a religious pilgrimage site that allows for hiking and cultural heritage visitation to holy archaeological ruins and functioning monasteries. Near Qadisha is the Holy Cedars (endemic species), and the Cedars ski area. Although the slopes are relatively modest, the area experiences abundant snowfall for a few months of the year, a unique asset in the Middle East. The Cedars ski resort could compete with ski resorts such as Turkey, Bulgaria, Romania, and Iran (JICA *et al.*, 2004).

**Figure 7.6** views of the Cross convent and the surrounding landscape at the Qadisha valley



### 7.3.3 Tourism demand and supply

Qadisha is one of the most early Christian monastic settlements in the world, and it is this unique and authentic characteristic that can attract tourism into the valley (see Appendices 14 and 16). The number of annual visitors to the Qadisha valley is unknown at this time, although it is probably higher than the number that visits the Goubran Museum (35,000 – 50,000)<sup>69</sup>. The visitors' number to the area is estimated at 200,000 per year and their length of stay is one day. Some European tour operators' (French, Spanish, Greek and Italian) offer tourism packages to Bcharre, but there is no evidence of Asian or North American operators doing that. In terms of demand, the area can be one of Lebanon's most significant tourism resources (see Appendice 14). The tourism services in the Qadisha-Cedars region include 20 hotels (total number of 500 rooms), 420 houses for rent

<sup>69</sup> MoT's statistics on visitors per site over the past four years do not include the Qadisha or the Cedars.



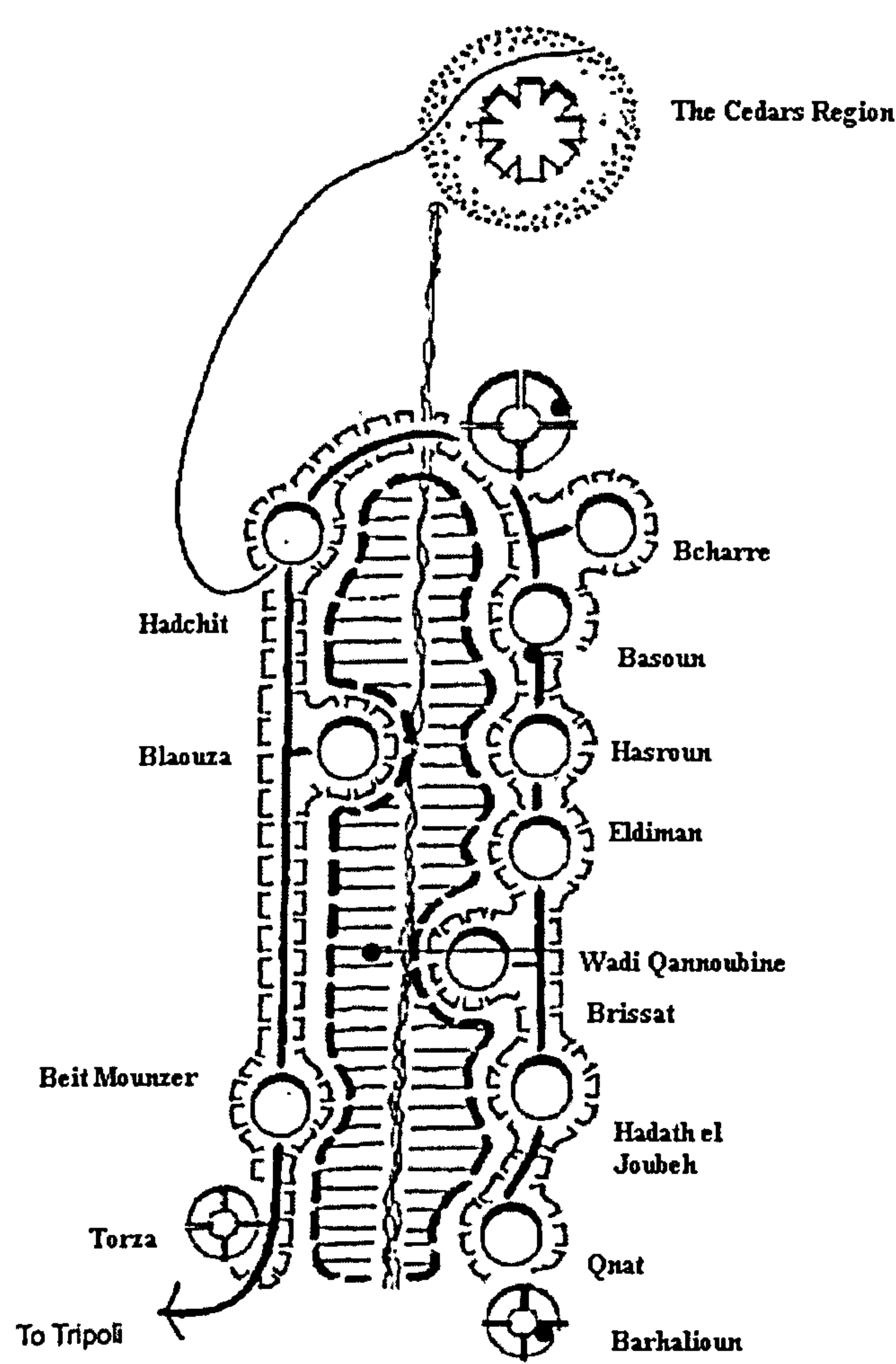
during the summer season, 25 chalets available for the skiing season, 38 restaurants, 72 shops, and a museum (see Table 7.1).

7.3.4 Socio-economy of the region

The casa includes sixteen villages. Eight of them have municipalities. A Kaem-Makam (mayor), manages the other eight. Fourteen of these towns surround the Qadisha valley and are Barhelioun, Qnat, Brissat, Wadi Qannoubine, Hadath el Jubbah, El Diman, Hasroun, Bazoun, Bcharre, Hadchit, Blaouza, Beit Mounzer and Torza. (see Figure 7.7 and Appendix 16) (UNDP, 2000; 2003a; 2003b).

Figure 7.7 Major villages that surround the Qadisha valley

The major towns that border the Qadiash Valley





According to a survey done by the UNDP and the Ministry of Social Affairs, the total number of registered inhabitants in the Caza of Bcharre is 30,000 in the winter and 50,000 in the summer (see Appendices 16 and 17). This change in number between the winter and summer is due to seasonal migration. According to the questionnaire survey, the total number of housing units in the Caza is approximately 5,000. The average household size is 5 persons, and 96% of them are Lebanese.

The Caza of Bcharre ranks 13<sup>th</sup> out of the 26 Cazas in Lebanon in terms of the share of low-income households. According to UNDP, 34.8% of the households in Bcharre are classified as low-income households. This share is slightly larger than the national average of 32.1%. Poverty incidence in the Caza is also higher than the national average (see Appendix 17). Concerning education, 13% of the residents have a high school degree and 6% a university degree.

Currently, nearly 20% of Bcharre Caza population falls within the 5-19 age group. The ratio of working age population (15-64 years old) to the total population, or the labour force coefficient, is 65.3 %, almost the same as the national average of 65.4 % (MoSA and UNDP, 1998). This conjecture is supported by detailed population data provided by the municipality of Hadath El Jobbé showing almost equal numbers of mothers and fathers. Some locals who migrated to the urban areas still visit their respective hometowns in summer, further ensuring the social stability as well as family cohesion.

As for the actual labour force in the area of study, it is comprised of a total of 7000 labourers. Females total about 15% of the labour force (UNDP). The unemployment rate in the Caza of Bcharre is reported to be 11.3%, the highest of all the Cazas in the North (MoSA and UNDP, 1998), while the national average is 7.3%. Of the unemployed, those who were once employed number 201, while those never employed, mostly the youth count 372.

According to a questionnaire, a survey and a series of open ended interviews launched by the study serious unemployment situations were shown in the area. Unemployment rates were reported to be up to 40% in summer and 80-90% in

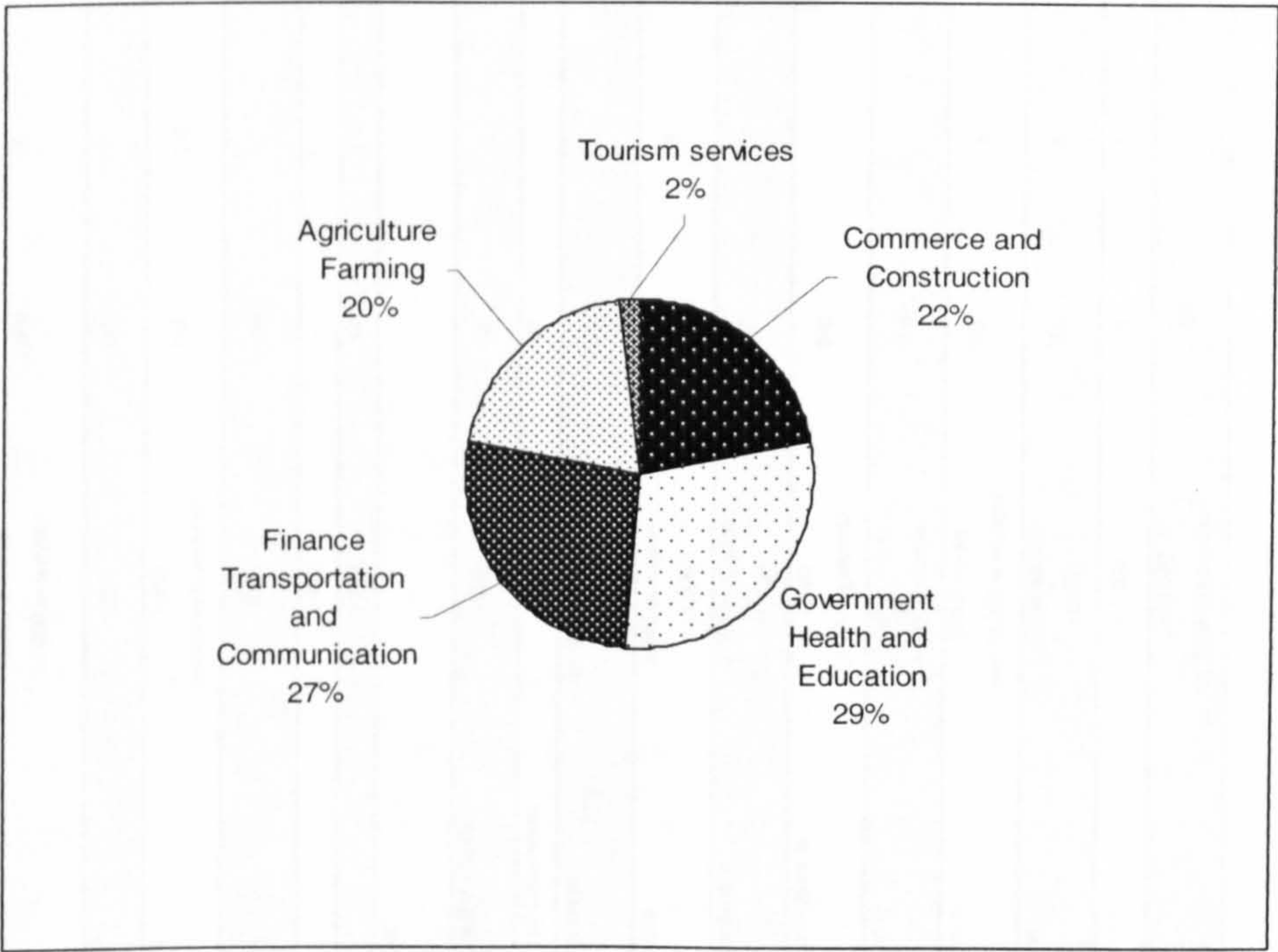


winter in some towns/municipalities (see appendices 12 and 17) such as Diman and Hadath El Jubbah while higher rates were reported in the Qadisha valley.

The major economic activities are: the production of apple, vegetables, livestock, poultry, and bakery, the manufacturing of beds, furniture, mattresses, aluminium sash, cedar woodcrafts and other handicrafts (some are disappearing), in addition to some tourism services such as cafes, restaurants, and hotels (Lebanon Bank, 2005; MoSA and UNDP, 1998) (see Appendices 2; 3; 16 and Tables 7.1; 7.2).

Employment by sectors is as follows: 22% commerce and construction, 29% government and community health and education, 27% financial, transportation and communication services (including some tourism related services), 20% agriculture and farming and 2% in direct tourism services (hotels and restaurants). The agriculture sector covers 2426 hectares of the area of study (fruit trees such as apples, citrus, pears, olives, almond and grapes). This agricultural land has been reduced by 15% in the last 40 years. The region is also known for its dairy products (goat cheese), wine, vinegar, and arak<sup>70</sup> (local alcoholic drink) (Lebanon Bank, 2005; MoA, 2003; MoI, 2000; MoSA and UNDP, 1998) (see Figure 7.8).

**Figure 7.8 Major employment sectors in the Qadisha valley**



<sup>70</sup> Alcohol drink produced by the monks in their monasteries



Table 7.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of Towns/Municipalities in Caza of Bcharre

Town/Municipality	Population	Housing units	Family size	Job opportunities	Unemployment rate	Hotels and accommodations	Restaurants	Shops
Bcharre m.	5,000 in winter 15,000 in summer	1,000	7	Wood carving Livestock & poultry	~ 30% including under-employment	9 hotels in Cedars 2 hotels in Bcharre chattels with 25 rooms	-	-
Abadeen	(500)	140		Bed manufacturing	7 %	None	-	9 grocery stores
Dinan	1,000 (returnees in summer)	115	5-6	None	~ 5 %	None	4 snack shops	5 small shops
Balaouza	235	~ 60		None		None	2	1 exhibition of woodcraft
Ban	~ 400	-		None		None	-	-
Breesat	~ 300	42	4-8	None		None	2 coffee/snack shops	1 grocery
Kanjour	-	-		None		2 hotels	4 snack bars	2 shops 1 petrol station
Mazraat Bany Saab	~ 600	65		None		None	-	-
Valley of Qannoubine	~ 300	40		None	80 %	None	1	-
Berhalion m.	800 in winter 1,300 in summer	210	~ 6	Poultry	~ 40 %	None	1	1
Bazoun m.	4,000 in summer (1,000)	220	5	None	20 %	1 hotel with 8 rooms	-	8
Bqorqacha m.	5,000 in summer (1,200)	250	~ 6	Agriculture	50 %	None	-	-
Hadath El Jibbe m.	1,100 (1,600 registered)	850		Furniture & mattresses, Bakery	15 %	3 hotels with ~ 120 rooms each 420 houses for rent	8	12
Hadehit m.	2,500 in winter 4,000 in summer	~ 500		None	60 %	None	2	-
Hasroun m.	3,000 in winter over 10,000 in summer	700	5	None	90 % in summer 40 % in winter	3 hotels with 35 rooms each	8	30
Qanat m.	4,000 in summer (1,000)	260	8	Livestock	40 %	Houses & apartments for rent	6	-
Tourza m.	~ 1,200	225	5	None	45 %	none	-	2
Total	~ 20,000 (~ 50,000 in summer)	~ 5,000				20 hotels with about 500 rooms	38	72



**Table 7.2 Handicraft Activities in Bcharre**

Type of Handicraft	Number of business organization
Copper handicraft	2
Silver handicraft	1
Metal handicraft	1
Cane handicraft	1
Wood handicraft	8
Pottery handicraft	2
Porcelain handicraft	5
Glass handicraft	2
Textile handicraft	22
Architectural works	3
Culinary works	3
Others	5
Total	55

Source: MoSA and UNDP, 1998

7.3.5 Local public institutions and civil organisations in the region

There are 8 municipalities (local governments) in the area of study, denoting that in Lebanon, not all villages have municipalities. The law stipulates that there should be a threshold number of population before a town can form a municipality. However, even when municipalities exist, their role is similar to that of the national government but on a Micro level. Each municipality has an administrative board that is composed of a president a vice president and a number of members that are elected directly by the residents of the town. Till now, the municipalities are not directly involved in the development plans for the region.

Equally, the municipalities are not in control of their finances which are in the form of local taxes for three reasons. *Firstly*, the national government is not applying a decentralisation policy to encourage municipalities to develop projects and by that generate revenue in the form of property tax. *Secondly*, a significant number of the residents refuse to pay local taxes, and *thirdly*, and most importantly the central government controls the municipality’s financial assets through the municipalities’ fund which are scarcely disbursed on them. This situation must change; the participation of the municipalities in the development



of a livelihood strategy can guarantee long-term follow up on the application of development plans that are set by the national government.

There are some civil societies and some NGOs and associations in the region. For the environmental activities the Friends of the Cedars Forest is the most active NGO, whereas for the cultural activities and tourism the Goubran Committee is the main association. There are also 11 other NGOs working in the field of tourism, environment, charity and development. Recently a Committee for Safeguarding the Environment of Bcharre (Qadisha) was established. It is composed of representatives of the crown village municipalities, representatives of the Maronite religious orders, and representatives of some local NGOs. Most of these organisations need financial support, capacity building and awareness to be able to function in an efficient way to develop appropriate ecotourism and rural livelihood strategies in the region.

#### 7.3.6 Discussion

As previously mentioned in chapter 6, the Lebanese national government does not have a defined rural livelihood policy, and has not made any effort to lower risk, and to reduce vulnerability. Right now agriculture is suffering from natural disasters (floods and land slides), diseases and competition from neighbouring countries, while tourism and its related services are equally neglected by the national policy makers. Comparing the strategy introduced by the national government of France with that of Lebanon, in terms of financial support to the rural developers and farmers, shows that the rural developers and farmers in France are entitled to financial support to enhance their status. They are also eligible for subsidies in case of, unemployment, failure to sell their seasonal crops or if faced with natural damages or disasters. This is not the case in Lebanon. In this respect the French government gives the rural residents a chance and an opportunity to improve their prominence or to recuperate their losses and thus adjust to the shock.

Conversely, the locals in the rural areas of Lebanon, if faced with a crisis, have no alternative but to look to themselves for a source of revenue. In most cases



solutions like wood charcoal making from trees, overgrazing by goats to small trees, all year long hunting and poaching of birds and wild animals and the development of stone and sand quarries is going to be damaging to the natural resources (see para 6.5). A good start by the national government to reduce risk and vulnerability will be to support major productive sectors like agriculture and tourism. This can be done by creating local or national funds to support the development of local small and medium size agriculture, tourism and ecotourism project. It can also be done by enhancing the role of the local governments and NGOs to supporting livelihood plans for their own regions (see para 3.5.1).

#### **7.4 Problems the Qadisha-Cedars region is encountering**

Historically the Qadisha valley and the Cedars highlands started to develop in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> century, when the Maronite monks and priests came and settled in the region and started cultivating parts of the land. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century the Maronite patriarchate and the order of Maronite monks controlled most of the valley and the surrounding land. They started hiring what they called “*partners*” i.e. “crops partners” to help them manage it. These farmers were mainly installed in the valley. They cultivated the land under the directives of the priests and monks, but had no property rights, and simply shared the seasonal crops with the owners of the land. The “crops partners” of the valley and the local farmers of the surrounding villages started to have difficulty finding markets for their agriculture products. As a result, many stopped practicing traditional agriculture because it is not generating enough revenue, while others left the profession and migrated to the city. Some of the farmers started developing alternative sources of revenue, mainly recreational facilities such as restaurants and cafés on the churches’ properties which were supposed to be used only for farming and agriculture (Hayek, 2002; MoC, 1998).

Equally, the Maronite church which is the major owner of the valley’s property does not want to invest in any projects that endanger the spiritual values of the site. It has been clearly stated by the Maronite Patriarch that this land is sacred and that in its soil lies the tombs of 22 successive Patriarchs. For the Patriarch, only activities for the purpose of meditation, praying, education, science and spiritual inspirations should take place in this holy valley. Any other tourist activities are



deemed unacceptable. To stop these activities that are being developed, the Patriarchate's only option was to request the intervention of the UNESCO and the Directorate General for Urban Planning (DGU).

## 7.5 Proposed Plans for the Qadisha-Cedars Region

The Qadisha valley and the Cedars forest are classified religious property (waqf). Equally, the heritage houses that are inhabited by tenant farmers (sharecroppers or metayers) are owned by the Patriarchate and are ranked historic monuments by a decree in the 22<sup>nd</sup> of March 1995.

There are other stakeholders in the region like the residents of the crown villages over looking the valley, the municipalities, the NGOs, the farmers, the museums' committees, the owners of the hotels, restaurants, cafes and gift shops and crafters. On a national level, the government stakeholders are the Ministry of Environment, the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of Culture, the Ministry of Public Works and the UNESCO.

With respect to the ecosystem management, this region falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Environment. As for the management of the cultural asset this same region falls under the jurisdiction of the Directorate General of Antiquities (MoA and UNEP, 1999a; Tohme *et al.*, 2002). Recognizing the joined site's (Cedars and Qadisha) outstanding universal value, the Ministry of Culture and Education/Directorate General of Antiquities nominated the Wadi Qadisha (the Holy valley) and the Forest of the Cedars of God (Horsh Arz el-Rab) to the World Heritage List of UNESCO and was selected as a cultural landscape with important religious monuments in 1997<sup>71</sup>.

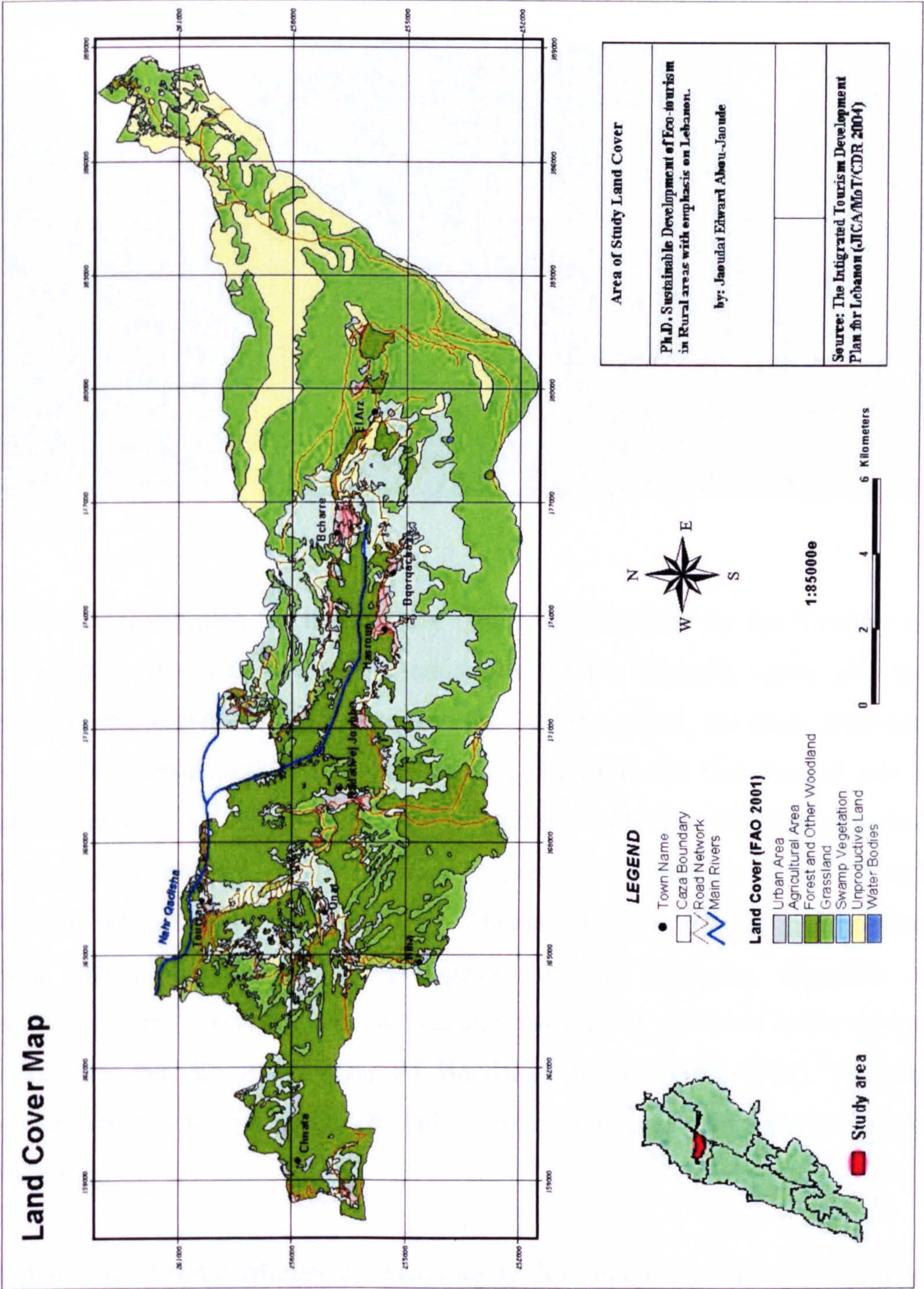
Current land-use control of the region is under the Ministry of Public Works. UNESCO requested that the Holy valley become a "nature reserve", and that a "strict site management plan" should be implemented and managed by a committee that includes representatives from the Ministries of Tourism, Environment, Culture and Public work (DGA) (see Figure 7.9).

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<sup>71</sup>The Ministry of Culture and Higher education's order n<sup>o</sup> 13 of 22/3/1995 and n<sup>o</sup> 60 of 27/9/1997.



Figure 7.9 Qadisha-Cedars land-use map



The Cedar Forest on the other hand is already classified as a “forest reserve”. It is also protected under the 1993 Law on Natural Sites. Legally, all cedar trees are protected by Law 558, for which the Ministry of Agriculture is responsible. The Cedar Forest is the property of the Patriarchate. It is collaboratively managed by the Municipality of Bcharre, the Ministry of Environment, the Ministry of agriculture and the Ministry of Tourism in participation with some local NGOs



(see Figures 7.10).

**Figure 7.10 The Cedars forest**



The Cedar trees

In 1997, a land-use plan for the Bcharre region was initiated by the Ministry of public works. It developed recommendations for the Qadisha valley and the surrounding municipalities. With regard to the Qadisha valley, the study proposed halting all new construction. It suggested that the valley be transformed into a “natural reserve”. As for the renovation of existing buildings, the plan proposed the use of light material (wood in order to prevent concrete construction) and approval of renovation plans by the High Council of Urban Planning. The plan believed that a coordinated, comprehensive regional planning approach is necessary to protect the valley’s resources, and that there is a need to create design guidelines for the ski resorts (Dar Al Handasah Nazih Taleb, 1998). Primary recommendations were set by the Dar urban planning master plan and focused on the following:

- Stop sprawl between villages by encouraging development on the upper slopes of the villages rather than towards the rim that overlooks the valley.
- Preserve land for agricultural use. A preservation technique will be to identify through zoning regulations certain areas of land for agricultural activities and to allow only low density development with a maximum of one percent land coverage to take place on it.



- o Conserve the traditional architectural fabric of the villages and impose design guidelines to control future development, including stone cladding and roof tiling.

A National Tourism Master Plan (1997) was also launched by the MoT in collaboration with the CDR, the Government of France and the UNDP (see Table 7.2 and Appendices 14; 16; 17) (Dar Al Handasah Nazih Taleb, 1998; MoT *et al.*, 1997). This plan simply identified the areas in Lebanon that has potential for tourism development. The Qadisha-Cedars area was also part of a research study launched by the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR), the Ministry of Tourism (MoT) and the Japanese International Corporation Agency (JICA) in 2004. The aim of this study was to develop an Integrated Tourism Development Plan for Lebanon. The study recommended that the communities of Bcharre, Ehden, Hadchit, Hasroun, and Hadath Al-Jobbé should implement urban planning regulations that take into account the architectural heritage and quality of the landscapes<sup>72</sup> (JICA *et al.*, 2004).

On a local level a committee for the conservation of the valley of Qadisha was set up in the 1997. It incorporated representatives of the Maronite Patriarchate, the Ministry of Environment, the Directorate General of Antiquities, the UNESCO, one municipality and one NGO. This committee developed a “preliminary management plan” which favoured the conservation of the valley and the Cedars Forest. But the plan was not implemented. The major obstacles for its application lied in the inability of this committee to get a clear approval of its plan from the local deputies and heads of municipalities of the region for three reasons. *Firstly*, the plan failed to include all the local stakeholders in the development process. *Secondly*, the plan did not develop any schemes to generate a source of income for the local residents and for the committee to cover its expenses (MoC, 1998). *Thirdly*, there was no process developed by the UNESCO to applying this plan.

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<sup>72</sup>To obtain a construction permit an applicant must get the approval of the DGU, the DGA, the MoE, the Order of Architects and the concerned municipality. If there is no objection regarding provision of



In respond to that, a federation of municipalities for the Qadisha-Cedars region was founded. The municipalities that took part in this federation are not owners in the valley and have different views that contradict those of the “committee for the conservation of the valley” on how to develop the region. They want to see a land-use plan for the region that is less restrictive concerning construction in the area that surrounds the valley. They equally want to develop the valley to become more recreational, which is to include a number of restaurants, cafes, and motels. To them this approach can create more jobs, reduce poverty.

## **7.6 A Better understanding of the local people’s needs**

The tourism and land-use master plans that were developed by the concerned ministries in the recent years did not take into consideration the sustainability issues discussed in previous chapters, like socio-economic needs and appropriate management of the natural and cultural assets. The plans did not also include an implementation and a follow-up mechanism. Equally the planning process followed a typical “top-down” approach that dealt in part with some local municipalities and totally ignored the local communities and NGOs. As a result these plans were opposed by the local residents, NGOs and deputies and were lately rejected by the council of ministers.

For a better understanding of the regions social and economic needs, and in order to reach a sustainable development strategy that will find a solution to depopulation in the area of study, the research developed a “bottom-up” approach that initiated questionnaires to target all the representatives of the local communities. It applied consultation workshops with the participation of the NGOs, local stakeholders, decision makers and Ministries of Tourism, Public Works, Culture/DGA, CDR, UNESCO, Environment, and Agriculture (see chapter 2). The *focus group* meetings and *separate interviews* were implemented with local residents, key stakeholders, hotel owners, heads of municipalities, his Holiness the Maronite Patriarch, nuns in the Qannoubine convents, deputies and ministries’ representatives (see Appendices 1; 2; 3). All of the participants in the Caza of

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infrastructure, the permit would be approved.



Bcharre agreed that the economy is worsening, and that unemployment is rising and rural migration to the city is being aggravated.

Generally, local communities were concerned about how little economic benefits they were receiving from tourism. The casa residents welcomed greater numbers of tourists and ideas to increase the local products. They recognize the importance of preserving the region's cultural and natural heritage, including the Holy Qadisha and the Holy Cedars. However, there are missing marketing strategies and infrastructure projects to improve the villages' tourism products and to capture tourist spending. The results from the questionnaires showed a lack of marketing of the region due to shortage in financial resources. All except one village indicated that they rely on the Ministry of Tourism and tour operators to promote their tourism.

The stakeholders were aware of the need to preserve the entire World Heritage Site from the Holy Cedars to the Holy valley of Qadisha, as current activities and development pressures are damaging its character and heritage. The Patriarchate, which is the primary landowner of the Qadisha-cedars, wanted the visitors and pilgrims to clearly understand the significance of the religious, environmental and cultural heritage of the Holy Qadisha valley. It requested the control of various recreational activities that are taking place inside its grounds (picnicking, hunting and partying).

The recommendations set by the local participants indicated that any future plans related to the valley respect the UNESCO guidelines and the Patriarch's desire to conserve this religious pilgrimage site, being one of Lebanon's premiere environmental and cultural assets. The preservation policy is best accomplished through enabling legislation that allows the Qadisha valley to become a "nature reserve" and to operate under a clear well developed integrated site management plan. The outline of this plan should include management authority and staffing in addition to operational issues and visitors transportation and trail plans. This should be accompanied by a preliminary Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) and strategies to promote the cultural heritage.



Similar to the approach adopted in the Parc National des Cévennes' that uses its existing traditional residents as "Gîtes Ruraux" for bed and breakfast purposes, the Qadisha valley can re-use its existing structures for the same purposes (see Appendices 14; 15; 16; 17).

Ideas and recommendations were presented by the ministries of culture, environment, tourism, the directorate of urban planning and UNESCO. These propositions included the creation of a public/private national and local coordinating committees to manage the Qadisha-Cedars' sites, the introduction of admission fees to the valley and the development of some visitor's amenities. Some NGOs suggested environmentally friendly transportation means into the valley, infrastructure improvements and renovation of the existing homes and monasteries. A number of local developers favoured the construction of an electrical cable car to better link the Qadisha valley to the Cedars Reserve and to provide transportation for visitors from the villages into the valley. Equally there were requests by some residents to develop an all year round tourism strategy and the establishment of local agro processing industries to stem out-migration. Other NGOs suggested better marketing and promotion plans for tourism in the region through information centres at the entrances to the Qadisha valley and neighbouring villages.

Some concerns were raised by the participants. These fears focused on the private sector's strong investment in Beirut and not the rest of the country. The locals expressed their worries about their regions' inability to meet tourism demand particularly with respect to lodging and restaurants, because of the reluctance of the private sector to invest in tourism outside the city of Beirut. They see this as the government's failure to recognise tourism as a major industry and to develop legislative actions that will encourage investment in this sector. Another reason is the shortage of trained staff and lack of effective marketing as well as a need for promotion through a joint public/private tourism entity (MoI, 2000).



## 7.7 Conclusion

The Qadisha valley and the Cedars have a mixture of natural and cultural beauty which can attract many tourists. The Cedars of God are the nation's symbol and a world heritage site. The area next to the Cedars is a good skiing resort. On the other hand the Holly Qadisha valley is an important religious and pilgrimage site. Its scenic beauty offers a unique combination of dramatic gorges and green terraces integrated into the landscapes. It is also classified by the UNESCO as an international cultural heritage spot. The crown villages offer pleasing architecture, spectacular valley views and delightful festivals celebrating local traditions and personages.

But the area is facing continuous out-migration due to the lack of employment. There is a lack of development strategies to create new jobs or to preserve the existing ones. In this respect certain developers, in collaboration with some local residents are taking advantage of the situation. They are using the valley's floors as base for the creation of short term unsustainable activities such as restaurants, cafes and camp grounds. By that they are creating a disrespectful atmosphere causing permanent damage to the natural and cultural assets of the valley and the riversides. These types of activities are gradually replacing the traditional agriculture and farming actives which used to be the region's major source of income. Such activities are strongly rejected by the major stakeholders of the valley, the local NGOs, the municipalities, the concerned public institutions, the ministries and the UNESCO. In addition to that, the valleys' crown villages and the Cedars area are continuously under threat by investors whose main intention is to get a fast profit by building immense tourism complexes that damage the natural and cultural capital, which in return generate an influx of mass tourism and cause tremendous damage to the whole region.

For that reason, the government in collaboration with the local municipalities, stakeholders and NGOs should respond to the needs of local people by establishing a "strategy" that combats poverty which is a major cause of environment deterioration and rural exodus in the region. Similar to the Cévennes National Park



this is done by generating a sustainable source of income for the locals that enables them to stay in their region. It should be based on preserving the natural and cultural assets while encouraging cultural, agro, eco and sports tourism (see chapter 5). The strategy must properly manage agricultural products which could be produced and sold for local tourists and national and international consumers as well as the manufacturing of some artefacts<sup>73</sup>. In addition to that the strategy should be able to manage tourism services including hotels, Gîtes Ruraux (bed and breakfasts)<sup>74</sup>, restaurants/cafes, and handicrafts. Equally important the strategy should also develop tourism promotion and financial assistance and training. Alternatively the sustainable development strategy should incorporate Agenda 21 recommendations through a holistic planning concept that preserves the essential ecological processes and protects both cultural heritage and biodiversity by tackling problems, such as air and water pollution, illegal construction and zoning violations. It also has to do with developing indicators and guidelines for management and monitoring of the site (Appendices 3 and 4). In addition to that it should build local capacity by training for jobs in tourism and ecotourism services, site management and conservation.

For a strategy that is diversified and sustainable to be developed in the region the research suggests applying a scenario by which the national government is willing to declare the area of study a national park. The national park approach will define a framework for the development and application of a diversified strategy for the region. It will help develop interconnected solutions to preserve the natural and cultural assets, create job opportunities and offer future development for the Qadisha-Cedars region.

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<sup>73</sup> Apple cider, dried fruits, molasses, wine, rose water and medicinal herbs.

<sup>74</sup> *Gîtes Ruraux* follows a program established by *Gîtes de France (Panda)*. It promotes country holidays in natural settings, with the objective of preserving the heritage and contributing to development of the local economy.



## **8 Qadisha-Cedars National Park**



## **8.1 Introduction**

In the Qadisha-Cedars region there are major reasons for rural depopulation. The first one is the absence of diversified rural livelihood strategies to generate long-term revenue for local people; the second one is the government's lack of commitment to protect nature and to implement and follow up on development plans and strategies; and the third one is the absence of a proper communication process between the national government and the local communities and stakeholders that will assure sustainable development for the area of study. For that this chapter applies a scenario by which the national government is willing to declare the Qadisha-Cedars region a national park. The scenario aims to anticipate the national government to improve the local people's environmental, social and economic conditions as well as to eliminate depopulation and protect the natural and cultural assets of the region. The scenario could also provide the basis for sustainable development in the region by offering the opportunity to introduce a diversified strategy into the development process of the region.

## **8.2 A model for the development of the Qadisha-Cedars National Park**

The Qadisha-Cedars region has an exceptional landscape (see chapter 7) and it is of national interest that the state represented by the Ministries of Environment & Culture protects and manages the region's ecological quality, cultural richness and historical characteristics. The UNESCO representatives, the major property owner (i.e. the three religious orders), the scientists and the nature protection associations all support designating the Qadisha-Cedars region a national park, making it easier to manage and increasing the possibility of sustaining its natural, cultural, religious and tourism assets (see chapter 7 and Appendix 2).

Many local politicians supposed that new constructions in the valley would generate jobs and stop the young generation from migrating to the city! Equally the union of municipalities proposed to connect the Holy Valley to the upper Cedars region by constructing electric car cables and implementing a major highway in the Holy Valley. To them this plan could trigger tourism development



in the region. Contrary to these schemes the Patriarchate which is a major stake holder in the valley and UNESCO wanted to preserve the “Qadisha valley” as a Holy and religious pilgrimage site, and a national environmental and cultural asset (see para 2.3.3; Appendices 2; 3; 14; 15; 16; 17). In this respect and based on a request from the Patriarchate, UNESCO declared the valley of Qadisha a world natural and cultural heritage site. It also recommended a set of procedures to preserve the site (UNESCO, 1989).

There is also growing awareness by the local communities and NGOs of the need to protect the natural and cultural heritage of the region. At the moment the local communities and NGOs do not have the capacity or the understanding to properly develop their region, and it is also imperative that local authorities and communities protect and preserve the natural and cultural assets. For that reason the government must become a major player in the process of developing and managing the Qadisha-Cedars.

In comparison with the criteria developed in the previous chapters on how to reach sustainable rural livelihood, most of the suggestions that were put forward by the locals for the development of the Qadisha valley and the Cedars region are considered non sustainable. They are short-term and could create permanent damage to the fauna, flora, and cultural assets. The recommendations that were declared by the local politicians were politically motivated to satisfy the local voters’ immediate needs mainly short-term income generated from construction jobs. They did not consider the negative impact of these proposals on the region. This was manifested in the strong lobbying that some heads of municipalities and deputies of the region launched to allow massive construction buildings and highways to take place in the valley and its surrounding area (see chapter 7).

In response, the research has realized that diversified rural livelihood strategies to generate long-term revenue for local people and to protect the natural and cultural assets will be needed. Also the local decision makers and politicians are not ready to develop and manage their own natural and cultural assets in a sustainable



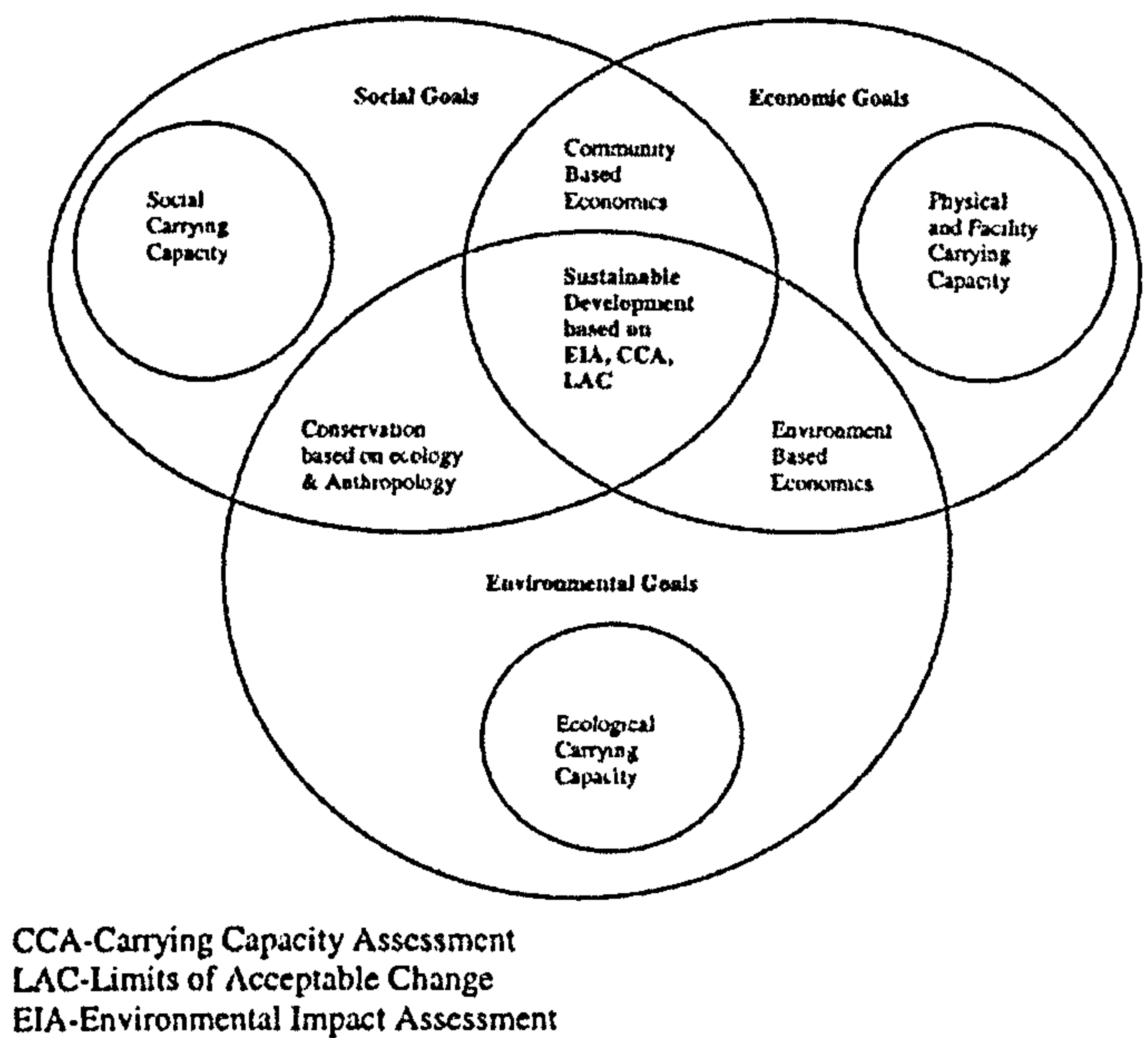
manner. Instead, the local decision makers need strict follow up, guidance and supervision by the national government. This must be followed by a series of awareness campaigns and capacity building sessions on how to manage and sustain their own natural and cultural capital. This has to occur before the locals can start to develop on their own policies and strategies for the “Qadisha-Cedars”.

For that the research has come up with a draft model to demonstrate the appropriate procedure that should be followed for developing and applying appropriate plans and strategies for the Qadisha-Cedars area. This is done in the framework of a national park concept (see Figure 8.3). The model will simplify the concepts and views that were gained during the research. It will estimate the consequences of various alternative courses of action that the proposed solutions might undertake (see para 2.2.3) (Blalock, 1982; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002; Frankfort and Nachimas, 1992).

**In step one** of the model, the National Government represented by the Ministry of Environment will start by applying a horizontal cross sectoral consultation approach with the Ministries of Tourism and Culture, national organisations, local people and civil societies to create the Qadisha-Cedars National Park. The process should be accompanied by a public enquiry that involves the local population, local administration, elected persons and other professional groups. The enquiry should consider the region’s multiple mandates it being natural, cultural, economic, religious, educational and recreational (see Figure 3.2). Equally, the consultation should define the major principles for the creation of the park which are: *Firstly*, the ongoing conservation and preservation of the natural resources, mainly the biodiversity, the natural landscape and the cultural heritage for future generations to come; *secondly*, the promotion of the rich natural and cultural heritage of the region; and *thirdly*, sustainable rural development that is based on the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) guide lines (see Figures 4.1; 4.2; 8.1; 8.3).



**Figure 8.1** Tools used to develop plans for the Qadisha Cedars National Park



Source: Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2002.

These principles must be accompanied by zoning regulations that will delimit areas that are strongly protected like the “Qadisha valley” and the “Cedars forest” (Zone 1) and other areas that will be less protected like the “skiing area” adjacent to the Cedars forest and the “fourteen crown villages” that looks down on the Qadisha valley (Zone 2) (see Figure 8.2). Each of these zones has distinctive bio-physical, cultural, characteristics, needs and requirements. At the same time each has a direct socio-economic and environmental effect on the rest. The fact that parts of these zones are inhabited by local farmers will give the zoning process a challenge to balance between the protection of the natural-cultural heritage, the agro-pastoral, and the proposed recreational activities (see para 4.4.3 and Figure 8.2).

The next step after the declaration of the Qadisha-Cedars a national park will be the creation of a National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC). The Ministers of Environment, Culture and Tourism, after consultation with the local authorities, NGOs, local communities’ representatives and stake holders will nominate the members for the NSTC for a period that could vary between three and five years.



The NSTC should be composed of: elected locals, scientists from academia mainly universities, administration’s representatives (concerned ministries and public institutions), the head of the union of municipalities, property owners, National CBOs and NGOs and a variety of qualified people. The mandate of the members will vary between three and five years and could be renewed. The NSTC in turn shall nominate from its members a president and a vice president who are subject to the approval of the ministers of Environment, Culture and Tourism (see Figure 8.4). The NSTC will name the Regional Development Authorities (RDAs) for the specified zones (see Figure 8.2).

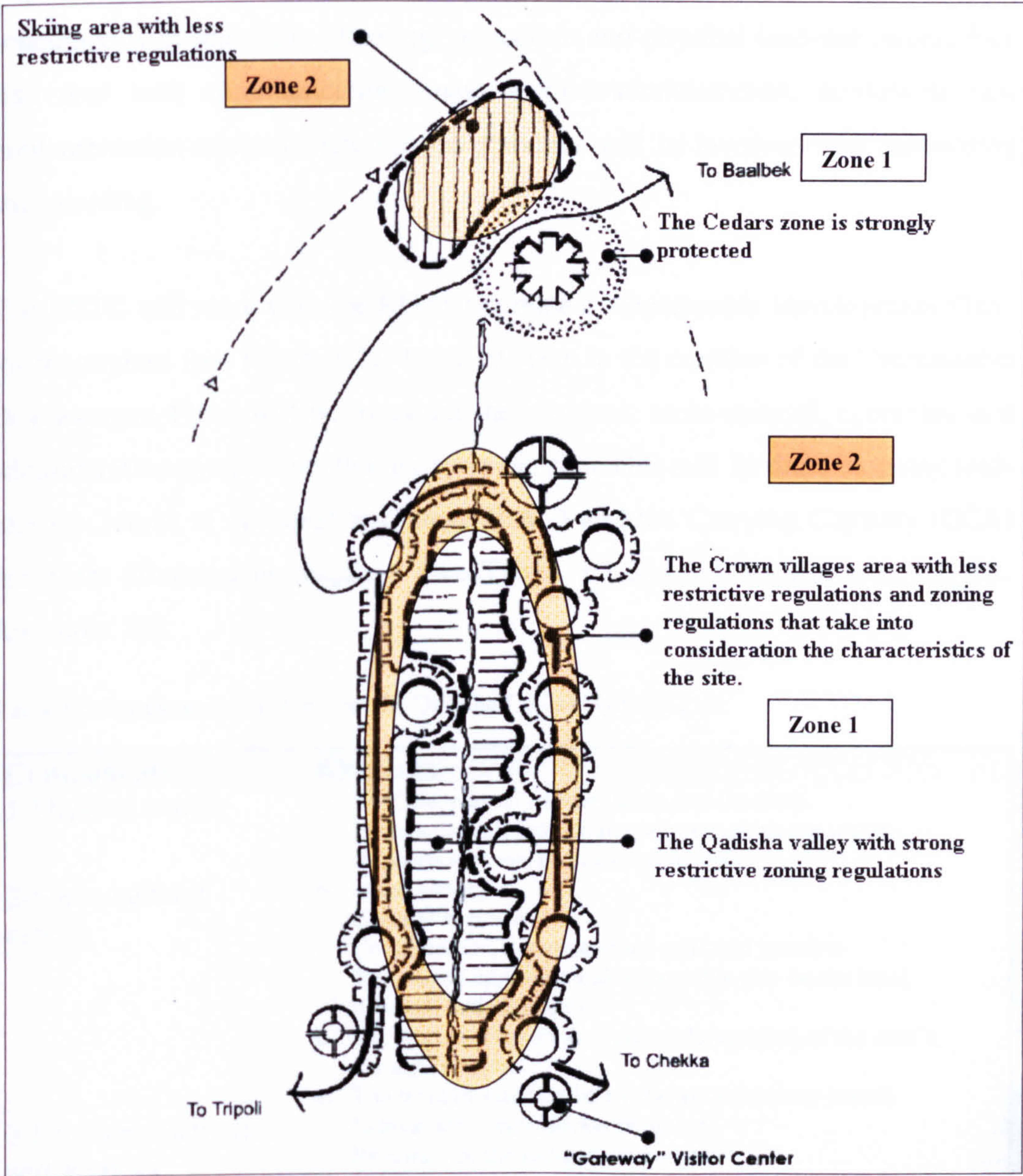
The NSTC will set the aim and directives for the development of the national park. It will prepare the proper grounds for the development of a “Sustainable Development Plan” on a regional level. It will highlight the basic present and future needs and requirements for the zones to be developed. The NSTC will be the liaison between governance and communal ideologies. It will assure the principles for sustainable development by communicating with its members on a horizontal level (see table 8.1). The NSTC will approve the functioning and organisation plans of the Park. It will vote the budget and comment on administrative matters related to the Park. It will also identify sources of funding for performing present and future projects. (see Figure 8.3)

**Table 8.1** Recommendation for sustainable development of the Qadisha-Cedars National Park

- |   |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Using natural and cultural resources in a sustainable way.</li> <li>○ Maintaining social and cultural diversity.</li> <li>○ Integrating tourism into the strategic planning process.</li> <li>○ Supporting local economic activities which take environmental costs/values into account and avoid environmental damage.</li> <li>○ Involving local communities in the tourism activities.</li> <li>○ Developing consultation approach between the tourism industry, local communities and organizations and institutions to avoid potential conflict of interest.</li> <li>○ Staff training along with recruitment of local personnel at all levels.</li> <li>○ Providing marketing information for the tourists.</li> <li>○ Undertaking research and monitoring.</li> </ul> |
|---|



**Figure 8.2** The Qadisha-Cedars zones



**In step two**, one of the NSTC’s main tasks will be the creation of Regional Development Authorities (RDA) for the different types of zones for development. The RDAs should include: heads of municipalities, civil servants, local advisers or mayors and representatives of the local population mainly NGOs and CBOs and other qualified personnel. The RDA will elect a president and a vice president, subject to ratification by Ministers of Environment, Culture and Tourism (see Figure 8.4). After being appointed, the president will nominate the



director and his vice president. The director shall exercise the powers that are given to him by the NCST on the RDAs, the specialised departments and the major site services (see Figure 8.4). The departments of specialists will be concerned with scientific, planning, protection and physical land-use issues; they also deal with communication, mass media, administration, accounting and implementation while the site service activities will be involved with monitoring and guarding.

The NSTC will work with the RDAs to create a “Sustainable Development Plan” for the regions (see Figure 8.2). The first stage in the creation of the “Sustainable Development Plan” will be to assess the physical, socio-cultural, economic and administrative components that exist on the site. This will be done by using tools like the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) and the Carrying Capacity (CCA) that were discussed in chapter 4 (see Tables 8.2 and 8.3; Figures 4.1; 4.2; 8.1; Appendix 19).

**Table 8.2** Components for assessing the Qadisha-Cedars National Park

Components	Elements
1-Physical assets:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Wildlife, natural habitat, fauna and the flora.</li> <li>○ Human capital, industrial, commercial, transportation, infrastructure and recreational facilities.</li> </ul>
2-Socio-cultural assets:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Local history</li> <li>○ Cultural heritage</li> <li>○ Communities, manifestations and local practice</li> <li>○ The ethical approach and responsible acts on the local, national, and strangers.</li> <li>○ The degree of awareness and understanding of the area’s natural systems.</li> <li>○ The level of satisfaction by the locals (survey-based)</li> </ul>
3-Economic activities and services:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Labour and credit market response.</li> <li>○ Revenue for the indigenous people.</li> <li>○ Marketing</li> <li>○ Livelihood diversification: On-farm and off-farm activities, seasonal migration.</li> <li>○ Activities generated by tourism (Outdoor nature activities and sports, amusement and theme parks, nightlife and entertainment, shopping, live theatre and musicals).</li> </ul>
4-Administrative strategies:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Government policy</li> <li>○ Community development</li> <li>○ Organized regional plans for the tourists</li> </ul>



This process will consider environmental, economic, social, cultural and governance factors that could have an effect on the development process (see Tables 8.3). On a regional level the “Sustainable Development Plan” will adopt a general policy and strategy that will integrate the characteristics and needs of the areas of study. It will acknowledge the sustainable ecotourism development principles discussed in chapter 4 and prioritise socio-economic development and environmental conservation (see Tables 8.1, 8.2, 8.3). In this respect the RDA will follow a bottom-up approach in coordination with its local members for the development of the “Sustainable Development Plan”.

**Table 8.3** Factors that affect the development of the Qadisha-Cedars National Park

Elements	Sub-elements	Reason of its particular importance	Possible negative consequences
1-Environment	Eco-system	Increased sensitivity due to specific climate	Disturbance and disappearance of rare wild species
	Attractive landscape	Protected areas	Damage to economy since tourism arrivals are motivated by the quality of the eco-system
	Water supply	Shortage of water -Soil permeability	Threats to tourism and agriculture;
	Waste water	Underground water basins (permeable soils)	Deterioration of the water quality and of the land water
2-Economic and Social issues	Standard of living	Traffic	Exaggerated traffic increase Narrow roads in natural and historic settlements; Sensitivity of cultural monuments to air and noise pollution
			Traffic congestion High levels of air and noise pollution; Devastation of cultural monuments Damage to the ecosystem
3-Culture and history	Cultural and historic heritage	Degree of development in the countries of tourists Specific traditional culture and norms; Existence of small specific closed communities	Further increase of social differences; Decline of the traditional economy Destruction of local culture; Conflict between local population and tourists; Increase in criminal activities Devastation of cultural monuments;
5-Governance	Policies and strategies	Exceptionally rich cultural and historic heritage; Present and future development plans	Lack of implementation and monitoring of natural and cultural management plans



**In step three**, a final “Sustainable Development Plan” will be submitted to the ministerial committee for approval. Once approved, the “Sustainable Development Plan” will return to the NSTC and the RDAs for ratification. It will then be subject to an approbation decree by the Council of Ministers. The next step after the approval of the plan will be to develop “Detailed Management Plans” for the concerned zones (see Figures 8.2, 8.3). This will be done by the Regional Development Authorities (RDA).

To develop “Detailed Management Plans” the RDAs will start by: *Firstly*, identifying the goals and objectives; *secondly*, developing a survey and an inventory on a micro level of the existing natural resources and tourism products in the concerned zone by assessing the physical, socio-cultural, economic and governance components of the site (see Figure 8.2 and Table 8.2) ; *thirdly*, identifying the major tourism, social, economic, cultural and environmental issues that need development or protection (see table 8.3); *fourthly*, applying an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) on the region (see Appendix 19) (Canter, 1996); and *fifthly*, setting monitoring strategies that will include indicators (see Tables 8.4 and 4.1). The monitoring will be applied through a set of observatories located in selected areas of the Park. The observatories will be used for setting up a base line for post-evaluating the state of the Park’s natural, cultural, economic and social status. Finally the RDA will evaluate, synthesize, audit and finalise the results and come up with management plans (see Figure 8.3).

Based on a proposition from the NSTC and the RDAs the Ministers of Environment, Culture and Tourism shall create a scientific committee and a sustainable development committee. These committees will be composed of selected personnel in the fields of agriculture, environment, architecture, tourism, urban planning or any other field that they find important for proper development and management of the Park. The RDA and the two committees will ensure compliance and follow up on management and application for contracts in the field in coordination with the director of the Park. The RDAs will incorporate and



interact with local communities, NGOs, Universities (researchers), International organisations mainly the UNESCO, major stakeholders and public sector representatives (municipalities and concerned ministries) to assure continuous updating of the plans (see Figure 8.4). The NSTC will coordinate between the RDAs and review their annual report of activities related to the management of their zones.

**Table 8.4** Indicators for sustainable development of the Qadisha-Cedars region

Sector	Indicator	Description and category
1-Environmental	Stress level ecosystem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ The tourists' number visiting the site (per Annum/peak month)</li> <li>○ The intensity of use in peak period (person /hectare)</li> <li>○ Number of tourists sightings key species (percentage success)</li> <li>○ Erosion (percentage of surface area eroded)</li> <li>○ Biodiversity (key species counts)</li> <li>○ Ecosystem degradation (number and mix of species, percentage area with change in cover)</li> <li>○ Number of rare or endangered species</li> <li>○ Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment.</li> <li>○ Waste counts (amounts of rubbish and costs)</li> <li>○ Pollution (water and air pollution count)</li> </ul>
2-Economic	Economic impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ The population poverty indices</li> <li>○ Jobs opportunity i.e. number of jobs created or lost</li> <li>○ Number of business facilities including hotels and restaurants opened or closed</li> <li>○ Level of the local economies dependence on tourism</li> <li>○ In season sites (percentage of vendors open year round)</li> </ul>
3-Social	Social impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ The ratio of tourists to locals (peak period and over time)</li> <li>○ Safety (crime levels)</li> <li>○ Level of consumer's satisfaction by visitors (questionnaire-based)</li> <li>○ Level of local's satisfaction (questionnaire-based)</li> <li>○ Level of site attraction (questionnaire based)</li> </ul>
4-Governance and policy making	Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ The existence of plans, and environmental reviews over development of site and use densities (controlling the number of permits for facilities)</li> </ul>
5-Cultural	Cultural (built)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Historic and cultural sites degradation (restoration/repair status and repair cost)</li> </ul>



Figure 8.3 Model for the creation of a National Park

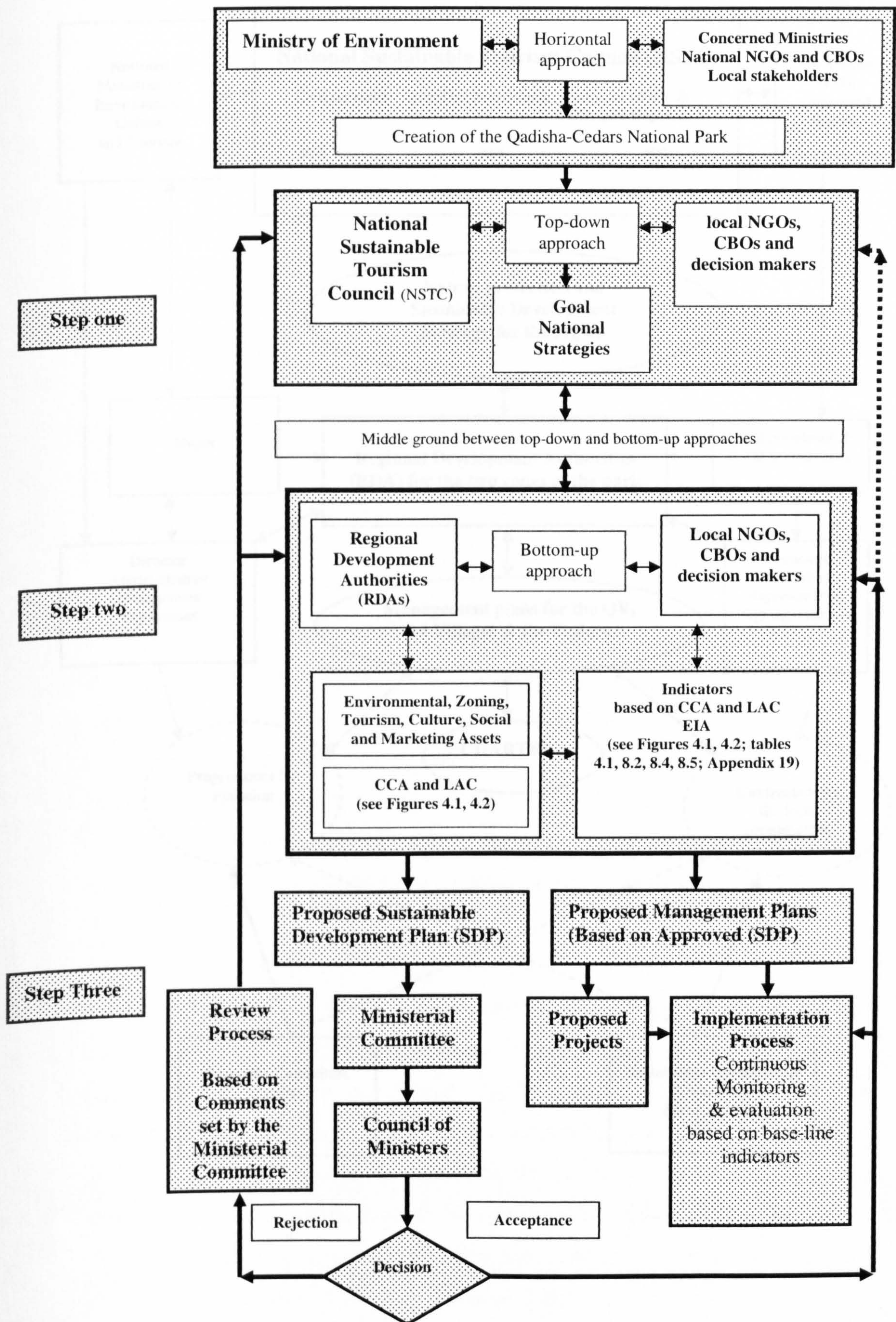
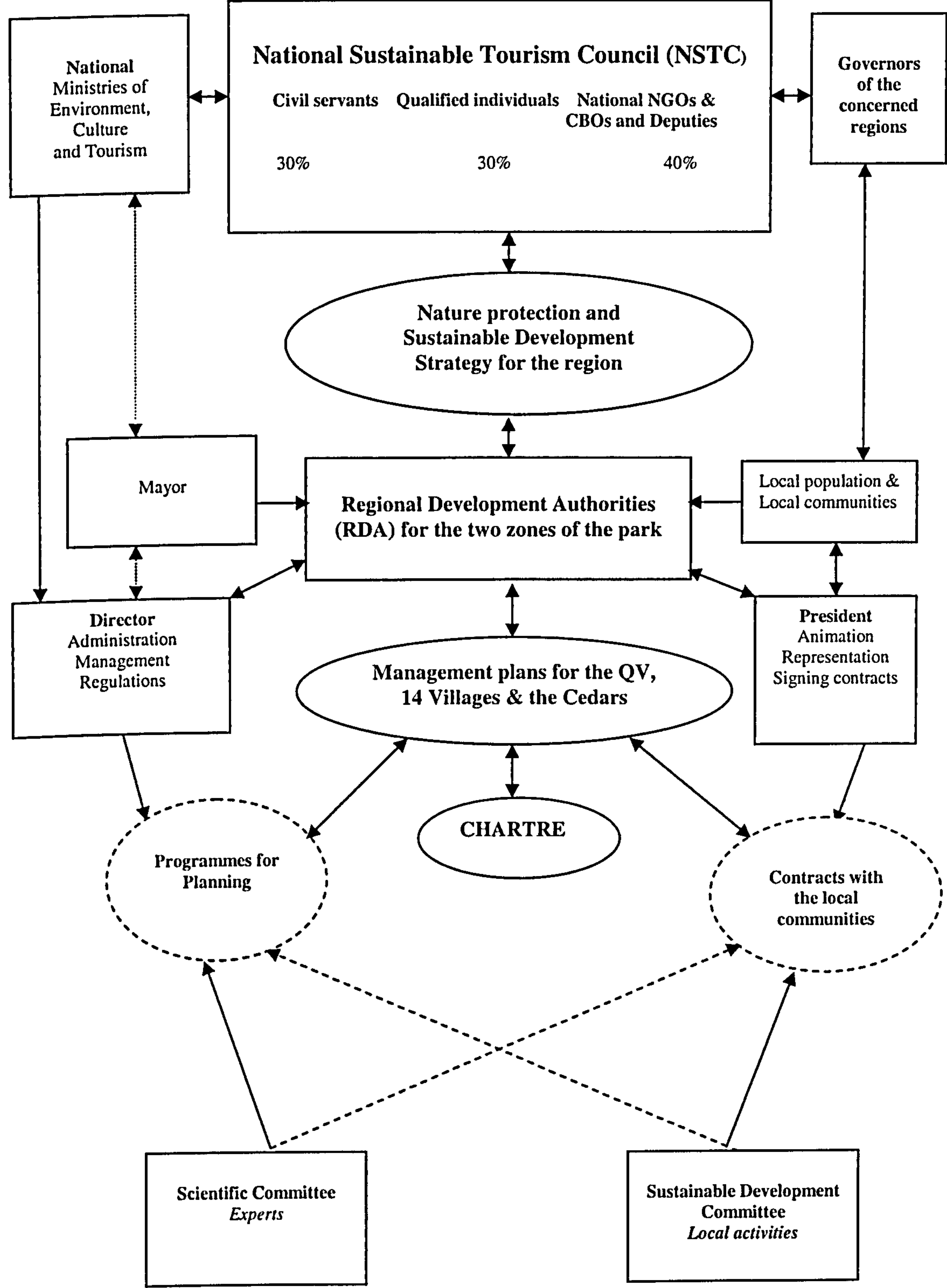




Figure 8.4 The Administrative Structure of the Qadisha-Cedars National Park





### 8.3 Aspects for Sustainable Development of the Park

The sustainable development of the Park will focus on *strategic* and *operational* issues.

The *strategic issues* will focus on the conservation and development of the local residents and the natural and cultural capital. It will protect the species of heritage interest (fauna and flora) and control the fauna to a level that is compatible with the safeguard of the environment and the activities that contribute to its richness. It will preserve the character of the landscape of the Qadisha-Cedars region while assuring a protection of the cultural heritage development. The management strategy will focus on developing jobs for the locals through a diversification strategy that introduces new types of tourism activities and services. This, in return, will encourage the locals to stay in their towns and migrants to return to their home villages.

The strategic management plan will emphasise “Qadisha-Cedars” as a destination place and support entertainment and discovery tourism that respects the “carrying capacity” of the region. It will encourage an agriculture that respects the environment and is adapted to the diversity of the area and values national park’s products through encouraging a production process that is considered sustainable. It will also develop partnership with the local communities, stakeholders and key players as well as with national, international organisations and institutions.

*Operational issues* will apply the laws and regulations related to the protection of the natural and cultural assets. It will guarantee periodic meetings with the local communities, NGOs and stakeholders and update them on the present and future Park plans and strategies. It will also support contractual partnership with local farmers for the management of the natural and cultural resources of the Park. The operational policy will adapt the financial investments to the regional planning schemes. It will also assure a continuous monitoring and updating of the data as per defined indicators, encourage research, development of knowledge, and understanding experimentation (see Tables 8.1; 8.4).



On a ministerial level an evaluation of activities report will be issued every year to the ministries of Environment, Culture and Tourism. At an internal management level, an evaluation report of the site agents' progress and productivity will be presented annually by the RDA to the director of the Park and to the NSCT. The Ministries of Environment, Culture and Tourism will specify the budget of the Park. The consideration of the budget, the financial accounts, and indeed any account relative to changing capitals of the public institutions will not be executed unless approved by the ministers of Environment, Culture, Tourism and the minister of finance.

#### **8.4 Discussion**

The key success of this Park will be based on a sustainable development approach that relies on continuous planning and management programmes that will be formed at internal meetings and external consultation (see Figure 8.3). In this process the NSTC in collaboration with the RDAs of the Park will encourage the twinning with other international Parks, the development of all types of federations, unions, and associations in the fields of agriculture, farming, tourism, industry, art, culture and promotions. They will favour the development of management contracts and partnership between the public administrators and any local NGO, and support small and medium size enterprises. They will aim to achieve a management approach that includes public awareness, preservation and conservation of nature and cultural resources for the well being of the local community. They will implement a good funding, marketing and promotion policy of the Park's services and products through hosting facilities that abide by the Panda label regulations, the European and World Tourism Organisation (WTO) Charters for Tourism and the EU LEADER program (Liaison Entre Actions pour le Développement des Economies Rurales) for classification and financial support of rural areas (see Appendix 13).

The management plans for the Park will try to find cross-boundary markets for its tourism services and products that focus on reducing the reliance of local unions, NGOs, agriculturists and manufacturers on the national budget for improving their



status and marketing their products. This will be accomplished through a series of orientation and capacity building workshops and conferences prepared by the NSTC and the RDA with the help of international organisations. Such activities will help the locals meet the international norms and standards required for finding foreign funds for their proposed projects and overseas markets for their products.

### **8.5 Assessing the Creation of the Qadisha-Cedars National Park**

The creation of the Qadisha-Cedars national park can help in the development of plans for economic upgrading and conservation of the natural and cultural assets of the region. This can happen by defining a long-term mechanism for communication and exchange of ideas among major decision makers, stake holders, local residents and NGOs. Equally applying a national park concept will identify the means by which economic and social plans can be implemented. This process will be done by developing schemes according to a set of physical, social, cultural and economic parameters that balance between the local people's needs and well being and the visitor enjoyment. It will specify a variety of land-use areas primarily for natural and cultural preservation, tourism development, agriculture and future expansions. It will also find funding sources for developing and executing small and medium size tourism and ecotourism projects in the region (ATEN, 2001; Cooper *et al.*, 1997; Chase, 1987; Murphy, 1985; Nelson, 1993).

To meet the local economic, social and environmental needs of the region and to protect the natural and cultural assets of the potential "Qadisha-Cedars National Park", three propositions will be made. The first of these propositions will be applied on *the "Qadisha valley"* located in (Zone 1), the second will be on the "*Crown villages*" located in (Zone 2) and the third proposition will cope with the "*Cedars regions*" located in (Zone 2) (see Figure 8.2). These propositions will be based on extrapolations and recommendations derived from previous chapters on how to attain sustainable development by applying rural diversification strategies.



These propositions will be used to validate<sup>75</sup> the ability of the potential national park to reduce rural depopulation and to preserve the natural and cultural assets of the region in the context of an LAC and a CCA (see para 4.3; Figures 4.1; 4.2; 8.2).

#### 8.5.1 Proposition for the “Qadisha valley”

The Holy Qadisha valley is constantly threatened by some visitors’ and local residents who are considered inappropriate by the research because they repetitively abuse its natural and cultural assets. Currently there are around four big farms in the valley. The bishop of the convent of Antonios Kozhaia has revealed that his farmers are now polluting the Qadisha River with their insecticides, fertilizers and animal manure and the arch bishop of the Maronite church has indicated that the valley is actually threatened by activities that do not correspond to its original traditional use<sup>76</sup>. Some farmers are developing restaurants and cafes on the property of the church (four restaurants so far). At the same time picnickers are continuously causing pollution and nuisance to the Holy Qadisha valley. In addition to that continuous visits to the site by large buses are causing tremendous damage to the natural and cultural assets (JICA *et al.*, 2004; Dar, 1998).

Based on these faults, the research has proposed declaring the “Qadisha valley” a “nature reserve”. This proposition should assure a long-term source of income to the local residents by preserving the essential cultural heritage, biodiversity, fauna and flora, which are major sources of attraction and revenue for the region. Protection will be achieved through “Integrated Development and Management Plans of the Reserve’s Natural and Cultural Resources”.

The Qadisha valley “natural reserve” concept will be developed by the National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC) in collaboration with the Regional Development Authority (RDA). This process will be followed by a series of

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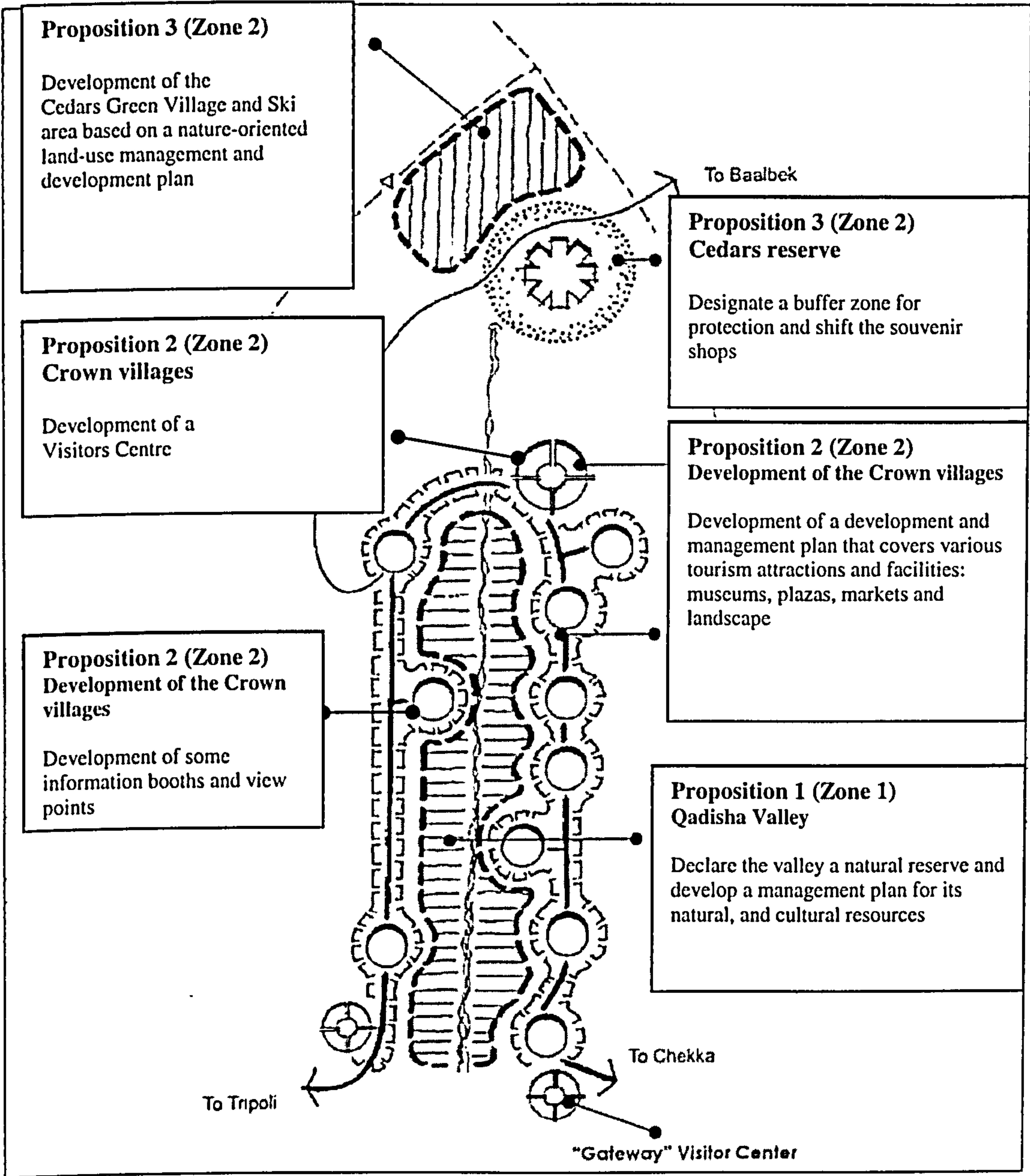
<sup>75</sup> There are different aspects of validity like ecological, social, cultural and economical (Bryman, 2001).

<sup>76</sup> Illegal restaurants and picnickers are disturbing the serenity of the valley and polluting its grounds.



meetings with the national and local communities and other concerned parties to set a strategy for the site (see Figure 8.3). A “development plan” that will consider *organic farming, low-density religious pilgrimage and bed for breakfast (B&B)* for religious-tourism purposes and *trekking* as the main activities accepted in the area, will be produced and proposed to the council of ministers (see Figures 8.3; 8.4; 8.5 and tables 8.1; 8.2; 8.3; 8.4; and Appendices 6; 18).

Figure 8.5 Three propositions for the Qadisha-Cedars National Park





Once the “development plan” is approved by the council of ministers, the Qadisha valley RDA will work on developing an “Integrated Management Plan” (See Figure 8.3). The procedure will start by valuing the site’s natural, cultural, tourism and human capital. Based on these givens a Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) on the site will be applied (see Figures 4.1). The CCA will be used to understand the levels of stress that tourism activities can cause to the capitals of the site. The CCA will comprise an EIA process to define the degree of negative environmental affect that will be caused by the visitors on the biophysical assets of the valley. Equally, the making of the “management plans” will rely on the Limit of Acceptable Change (LAC) method to define the degree of tolerance that should be allowed during the tourism visits to the site (see Figure 4.2; Appendix 19).

The CCA will develop indicators and guidelines for managing and monitoring the site. These environmental, tourism, cultural and socio-economic indicators will be used to help the local authorities visualise how to properly preserve the valley on the long-term (see Figure 8.3 and Tables 8.3; 8.4). In this respect the “management plans” will include continuous implementation, monitoring, evaluation and updating tools for the environmental, tourism, cultural and socio-economic assets of the site (see Figures 8.3 and 8.13) (WTO, 1993, 1996, UNEP, 1997).

### Visitors Management Plan

According to a survey done by the study at the moment the number of visitors to the valley is not controlled and access to the valley is not properly planned and is difficult to follow. The trails have some steep and slippery sections; there are no trailheads and very little signage. According to a survey done by the JICA and the CDR the number of visitors to the valley was found to be between 35 and 40 thousand people per year<sup>77</sup>. The main transportation means to the valley is a 30 seat bus that goes down to the valley on an average of 4 trips per day (JICA *et al.*, 2004). In order to control impact of the visitors on the valley i.e. around 120 visitors /day, the RDA should develop a “Visitors Management Plan” that abide by the criteria discussed in paragraph 4.4.2 (MacArther, 1998; Ross *et al.*, 1999).



One of the Carrying Capacity Assessment indicators will be the Physical Capacity (PC) of the site to withstand human pressure (see para 4.4.2; Appendix 18).

To manage access to the site the following projects will be proposed: *Firstly*, develop an information centre at the gateway of the valley that is located in the Crown villages' zone, to direct, control and limit the number of visitors and also extract an entrance fee (see Figure 8.5). *Secondly*, in order to meet the existing demand for picnicking within the Qadisha valley and to eliminate any negative impact, develop a venue outside the Qadisha valley. There is a potential for creating a recreational park for picnickers in adjacent valleys. As part of the "Visitors Management Plan", the RDA must also develop a pedestrian transportation scheme<sup>78</sup> and improve safety and signage on the visitors trails. In addition, the management plan must address infrastructure improvement and the renovation of the homes in the valley for the purpose of using them for Bed for Breakfast (B&B).

#### Bed and Breakfast (B&B) for religious-tourism purposes

The research has identified 4 Deir (monasteries) as major destinations in the valley (see Figure 8.6). Each of these monasteries can accommodate a maximum 15 people per visit and 2 visits per day and results in 120 tourists per day and 43,200 visitors per year as a maximum Annual Physical Capacity (APC)<sup>79</sup>. There is also a stock of 40 heritage structures<sup>80</sup>, some of which are abandoned and some are inhabited by families. For that, the research suggests using the Gîtes Ruraux concept from the Parc National des Cévennes as a proto-type for bed for breakfasts (B&B) accommodation among the existing families who live in these historic structures will be a successful solution for such re-use (see Figure 8.6) (see Appendices 13). The Gîtes Ruraux policy will generate income to the residents but will depend on the availability of Gîtes Ruraux, the type of tourists, their number and their average length of stay (in nights).

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<sup>77</sup> Based on Goubran museum's visitors' statistics

<sup>78</sup> The existing trail system in the Qadisha Valley is difficult to follow.

<sup>79</sup> The APC is part of the CCA that was launched by the study on the Qadisha valley (see appendix 18).

<sup>80</sup> A collection of stone heritage homes can be renovated to become visitor education facilities, such as a Eco-Heritage Museum, handicraft and agro-product workshops, and limited B&Bs (*Gîtes Ruraux*).



**Figure 8.6** Convents in the “Qadisha valley”



**Figure 8.7** Potential rural lodge in the “Qadisha valley”



In the Qadisha valley the majority of tourists are either pilgrims or nature lovers. In both cases the possibility of them staying overnight is minimal as most of them live in the vicinity. To assess these visitors’ accommodation demand in view of the “limited number of rural lodges” available on the site, the following equation is implemented (WTO, 1999):



[No. of tourists (per time period) x average length of stay (nights)] ÷ [No. of nights (per high season period) x accommodation occupancy factor] =

[120x120 (tourists per 4 months in the high season) x 3 (nights)] ÷ [120 days x 90% occupancy] = 400 beds.

If the average is 2 beds per room and 6 rooms per lodge the valley requires around [400 ÷ 2 (beds in a room) ÷ 5 (rooms in a lodge)] = 40 lodges (WTO, 1999).

On the basis that there will be no new construction in the valley the forty houses that exist will satisfy the actual demand. If the Gîtes Ruraux policy is implemented in the valley, a training program in hospitality must be provided for those offering Bed for Breakfast (B&B) providers<sup>81</sup>. Equally important, the local farmers should be encouraged to introduce organic production. Where available, labelled fruits and vegetables can be easily sold in the rural gîtes, the local markets of neighbouring villages and/or used in the local restaurants that exist in the valley's crown villages. Another indicator is the Biological Capacity (related to the vulnerability of the flora and fauna and the eco-system). The area of the site under study is 3000 hectares and the total area of the valley is around 1/3 the total study area i.e. 1000 hectares. Knowing that the number of tourists per day is 120, this results in an average surface area of 1000 hectars/120 visitors = 8 hectares per visitor .At this level there will be low impact on the fauna and flora of the region (Gombault, 1995; UNDP, 1997).

Some difficulties might occur while implementing a development plan for the Qadisha valley natural reserve the most significant of which will be the conflict that might occur between the NSTC representatives. The several ministries that will be represented in the NSTC have overlapping management and jurisdiction powers over the Lebanese natural reserves and forests<sup>82</sup>. Equally the head of the union of municipalities, the deputies and other decision makers, who will be represented in NSTC, already have different views of development than the government's representatives. The use of the National Park Scenario will make

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<sup>81</sup>They will be required to meet the licensing requirements of the Ministry of Tourism and well-trained guides should be provided.

<sup>82</sup>The management of the forests is assigned to the MoA, the natural reserves to the MoE and the cultural assets to MoC.

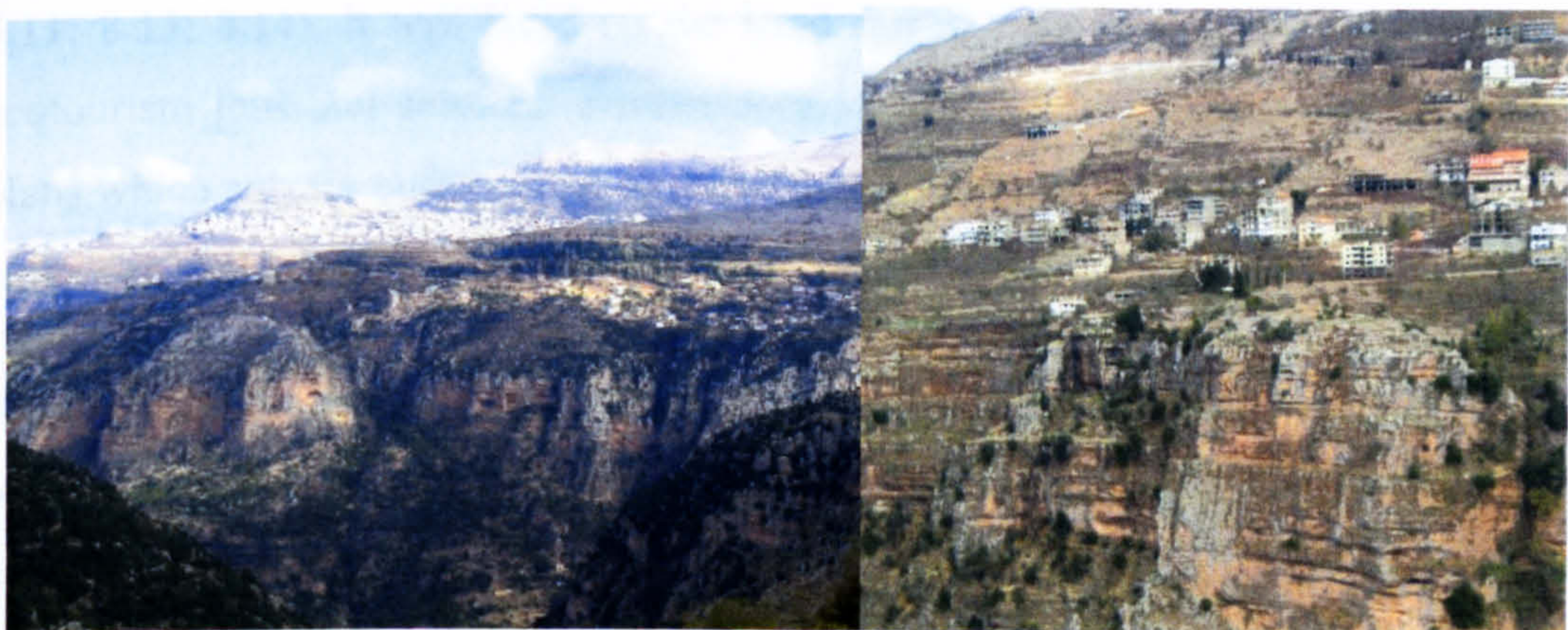


certain that NSTC members will meet and come into a consensus on how to develop the Qadisha valley. The scenario will also help out the RDA work together with the NSTC to sustain the Holy Qadisha valley as an important cultural religious and natural site and encourage low impact developments (see Figure 8.4). The realization of the process as demonstrated by the model will insure a link between the Qadisha-valley's cultural, religious and lodging activities and that of the crown villages and the Cedars region. Accordingly, some pilgrims and trekkers will spend the night in the lodges, the days in the valley learning about and enjoying the solitude of the monasteries or nature rambling, and their afternoons and evenings visiting the crown villages and the Cedars region.

#### 8.5.2 Proposition for the "Crown villages"

The next step after declaring the Qadisha valley a natural reserve will be to combat rural exodus in the villages surrounding the valley. For that the research relies on the recommendations deduced from the tourism and land-use studies discussed in previous chapters "mainly chapters 5 and 6", as well as on the interviews and workshops undertaken with the decision makers, stakeholders and other local concerned parties (see Appendices 2 and 3). It will propose for the crown villages that surround the valley an "ecotourism development and management plan" that will rely on the existing tourism potential of the villages (see Figure 8.7; 8.8; 8.13 and Appendices 16; 17).

**Figure 8.8** View of some of the crown villages





The management plan will be produced by the National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC) and developed in collaboration with the RDA for the Crown Villages and will rely on a survey done by the study of the villages (see Appendices 1; 2; 16; 17; 18). The plan will focus on developing ecotourism and promotion activity to attract tourists to the crown villages. It will follow the same procedure as that of the Qadisha-Cedars plan. As illustrated by the model once the plan is approved by the council of ministers the RDA will initiate a management plan that will include a CCA an EIA and an LAC. This process develop a survey and an inventory of the existing natural resources and tourism products by assessing the physical, socio-cultural, economic and governance components of the site. The development and management process then will define major tourism, social, economic, cultural and environmental development and protection issues and concerns. This is followed by assessing the area in terms of developing indicators in the fields of environment, tourism, marketing, economics, sociology, culture and zoning (Land-use) (see Table 8.4).

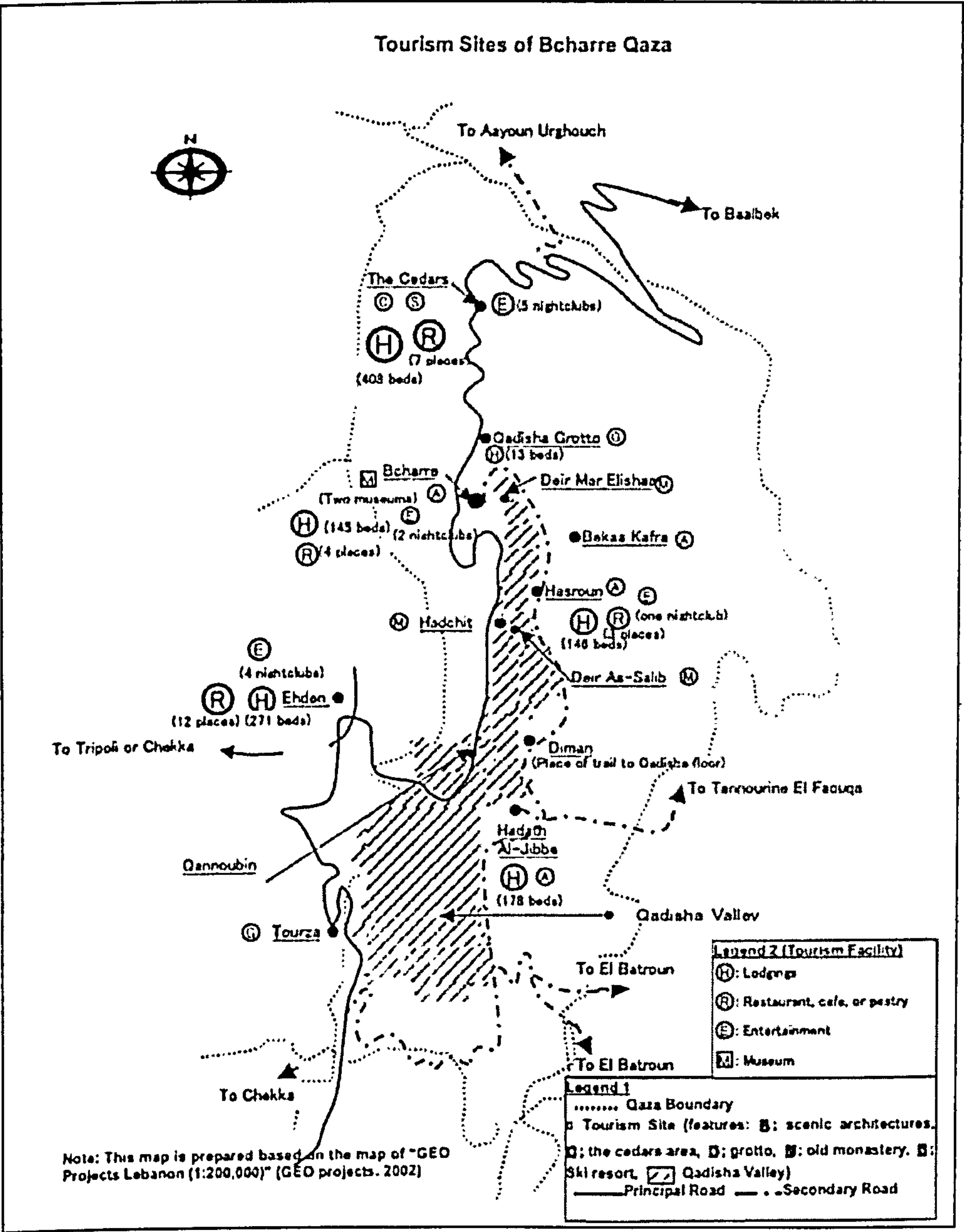
The Crown Villages' Regional Development Authorities (RDA) will use these givens to develop the requested ecotourism development and management plan. It will then present the final result to the Ministerial Committee for approval. Once these plans are approved they will be applied by RDAs and later subjected to continuous evaluation, coordination and monitoring (see Figures 8.5; 8.8; 8.14). The Crown Villages' development plan will include the creation of rural lodges, restaurants, handicraft centres, information kiosks and maps to encourage trekkers and pilgrims and other types of tourists to visit the villages (see Figures 8.9; 8.10; 8.11; 8.13; 8.14). It will build on the local capacity by training in tourism and ecotourism jobs and services. Furthermore, it will develop zoning and land-use plans which specify buffer zones to control the visual impact of existing buildings at the rim of the valley.

As discussed in chapter 4, the land-use plan can prohibit the construction of new buildings at the rim of the valley. It will recommend shifting new construction away from the rim of the valley and into the hinterland (see paras 4.4.3, 7.2.8, 7.2.9). The plan will require that an Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs)



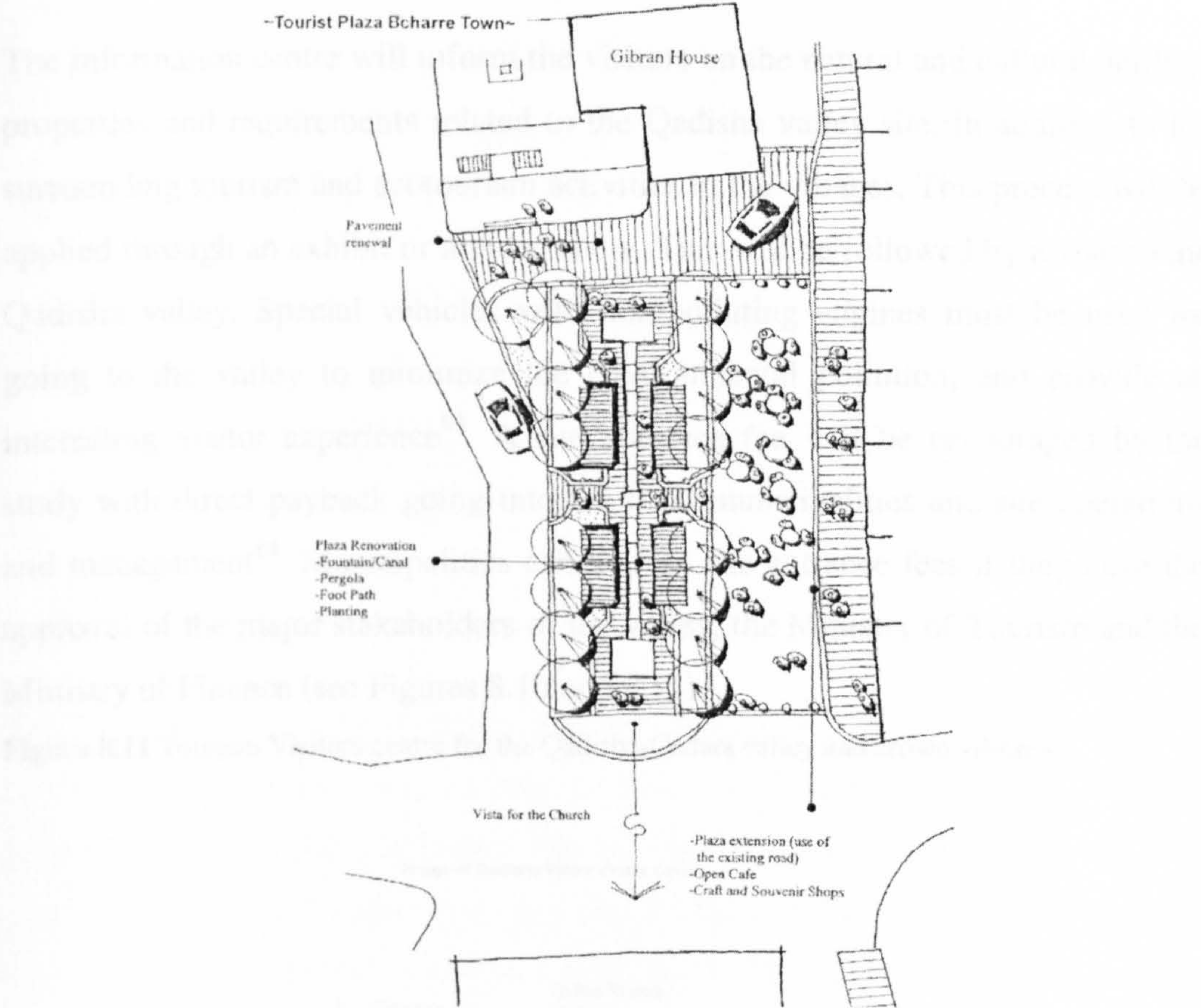
will be implemented prior to the construction of any new tourism developments on the hinterland. Also, the management plan will propose the development of markets and market places for the locals to sell their agricultural and artefact products. It will encourage restaurants to promote and consume local organic products.

Figure 8.9 Present tourism facilities map in the Qadisha-Cedars crown villages





**Figure 8.10** Tourism market place for the Qadisha-Cedars crown villages



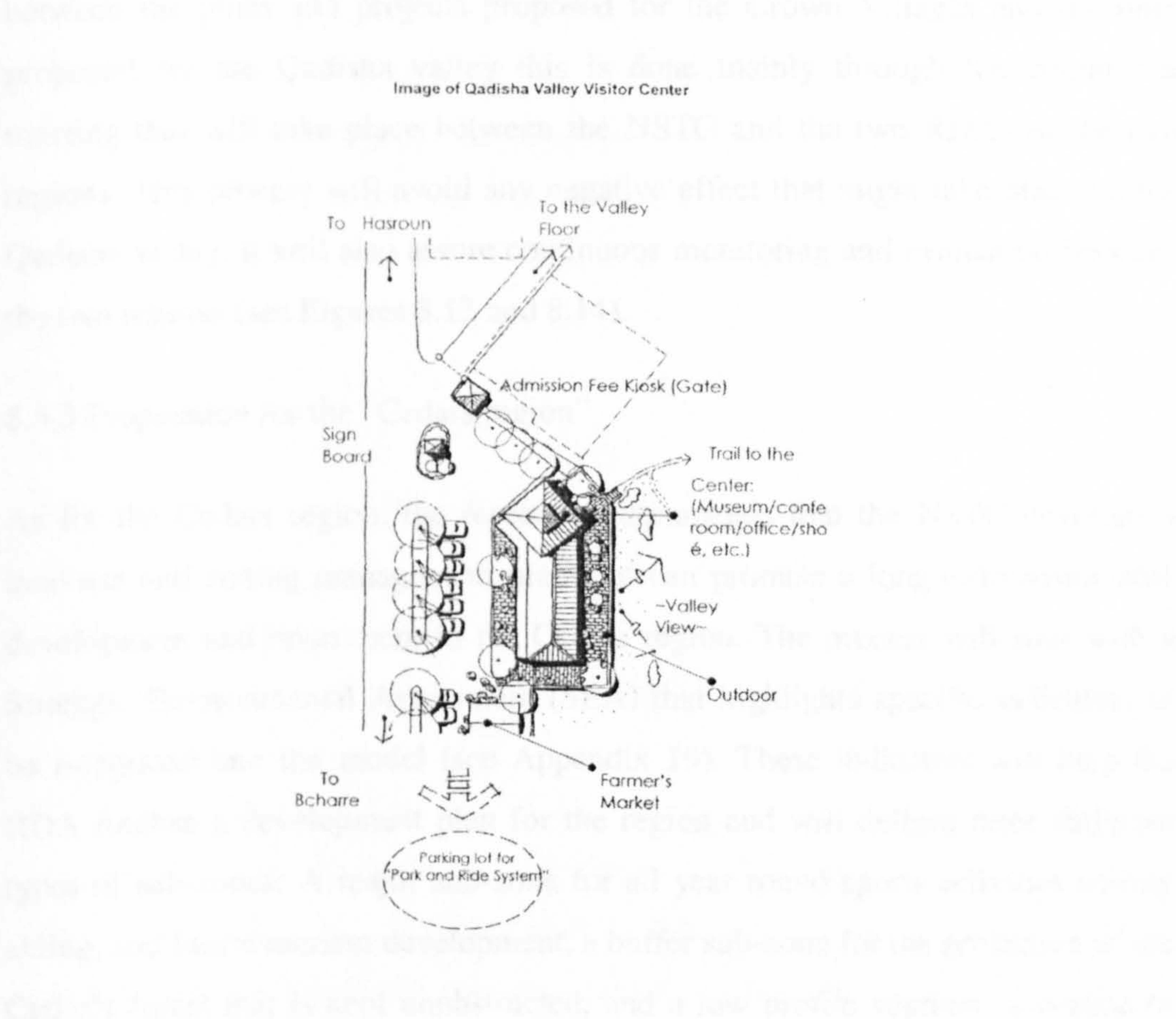
The development of strong handicraft activities will lengthen the visitors' stay and provide an increase in spending. Currently, there are a number of NGOs working on handicraft development in Bcharre, including the Centre for Social Development Services. An eco-museum in the Bcharre region (similar to that in the Cévennes) could offer a fascinating collection of well designed exhibits on silk production and an educational video on the Phoenician's purple dye made from the nearly extinct murex shells. A gift shop and a market place could be prototypes for merchandising artefacts and organic agro-products including fig, mulberry, and pumpkin preserves, rose syrup, vinegars, lavender soap, and silk products, in addition to the development of a centre for visitors (see Figures 8.9; 8.10 and Appendices 14; 16; 17). The centre will be located at the main entrance to the valley. It will include car and bus parking. Its functions should consist of a reception area (information services and fee collection), a management agency office space, a conference room, a training room, an exhibition space, a small video room, restrooms, and a heritage shop that has local products that are



provided by local people including the farmers of the valley (see Figure 8.10).

The information centre will inform the visitors on the natural and cultural heritage properties and requirements related to the Qadisha valley site, in addition to the surrounding tourism and ecotourism activities in the villages. This process will be applied through an exhibit or a video show. This will be followed by a visit to the Qadisha valley. Special vehicles with non-polluting engines must be used for going to the valley to minimize the environmental pollution, and provide an interesting visitor experience<sup>83</sup>. A site entrance fee will be encouraged by the study with direct payback going into the local municipalities and site operations and management<sup>84</sup>. Municipalities can impose site entrance fees if they have the approval of the major stakeholders of the valley, the Ministry of Tourism and the Ministry of Finance (see Figures 8.10 and 8.11).

**Figure 8.11** Tourism Visitors centre for the Qadisha-Cedars valley and crown villages

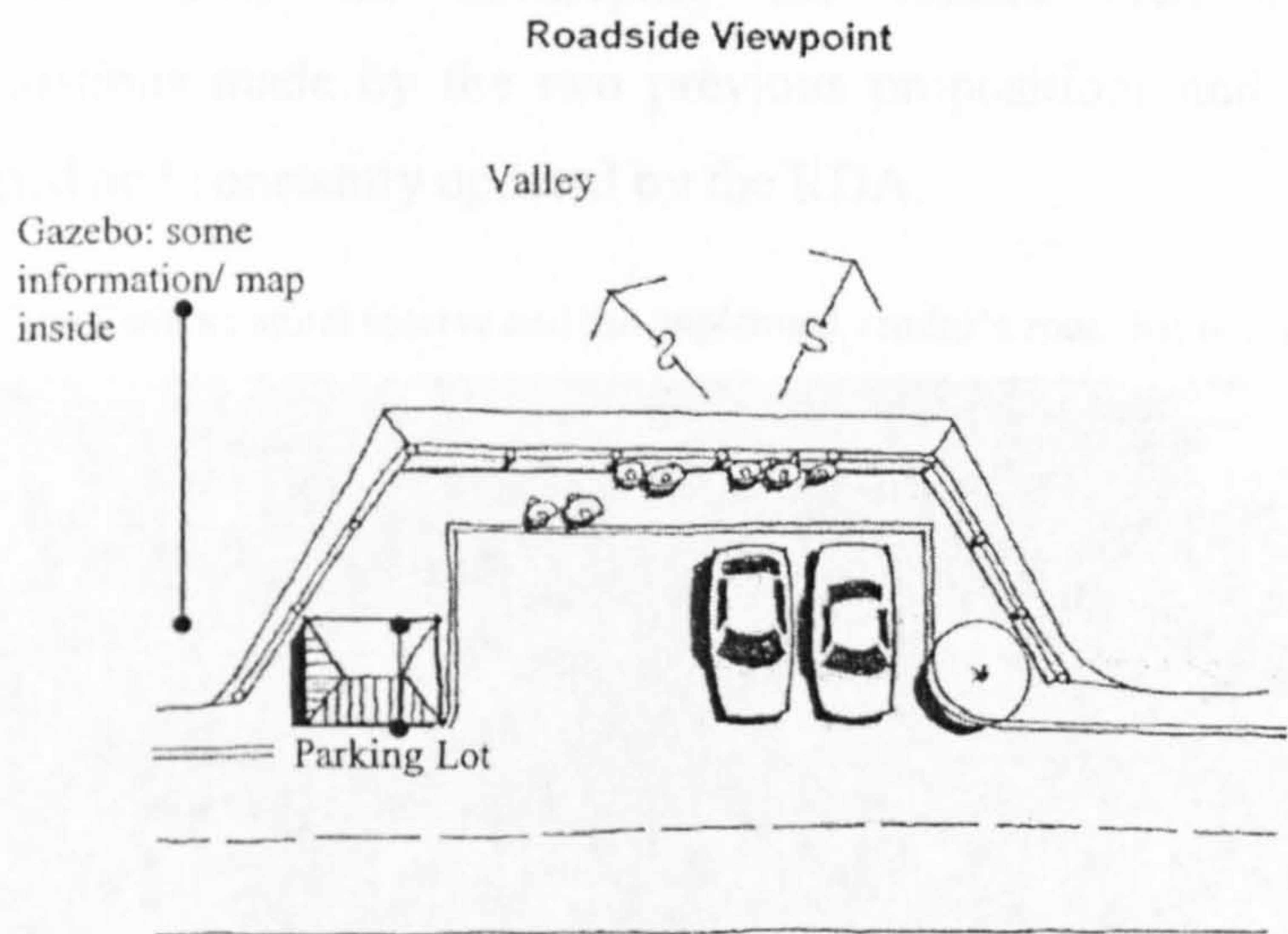


<sup>83</sup> Natural gas or battery operated mini-buses are two examples of the use of environmentally friendly energy sources.

<sup>84</sup> Currently, the municipalities have two sources of funding for tourism, taxes and subsidies distributed by the Ministry of Interior and Municipal Affairs.



**Figure 8.12** Information and view points for the Qadisha-Cedars valley and crown villages



The National Park Scenario will guarantee proper development and coordination between the plans and projects proposed for the Crown Villages and the ones proposed for the Qadisha valley this is done mainly through the continuous meeting that will take place between the NSTC and the two RDAs of the two regions. This process will avoid any negative effect that might take place on the Qadisha valley. It will also assure continuous monitoring and evaluation between the two regions (see Figures 8.13 and 8.14).

8.5.3 Proposition for the “Cedars region”

As for the Cedars region, the research recommends that the NSTC develops a land-use and zoning management plan that can promise a long-term sustainable development and investment in the Cedars region. The process will start with a Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) that highlights specific indicators to be integrated into the model (see Appendix 19). These indicators will help the RDA finalise a development plan for the region and will delimit three different types of sub-zones: A major sub-zone for all year round sports activities mainly skiing, and future tourism development, a buffer sub-zone for the protection of the Cedar’s forest that is kept unobstructed, and a low profile vendors’ sub-zone to sell artefacts and agricultural products (see Figures 8.5; 8.12 and Appendices 14;



15; 16; 17; 18). In this way the model assures that the proposed plan that will be set by the NSTC for developing the Cedars area compliments the recommendations made by the two previous propositions and will be properly implemented and constantly updated by the RDA.

**Figure 8.13** The Cedars natural reserve and the unplanned vendor's zone that is adjacent to it



Being adjacent to the Holy Cedars, the ski area must be planned and built as a low density ski village. It should be developed under a management master plan that will rely on proper landscape and architectural guidelines that will permit the building of low density resorts similar to the green village concept used in countries like Canada and Australia (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Dearden and Harron, 1993; Funnel, 1999; Hall, 1991). The strategy will depend on a land-use planning and tourism policy that preserves and improves the quality of the environment by straightening the demand curve; reducing the space consumption for mass tourism; preserving natural landscape; cooperating with other light industries, in particular agriculture and forestry; implementing environmentally friendly industry; and changing tourists' behaviour (see paras 4.4.2; 7.2.8; 7.2.9)

The Green Village program will be selected to allow the communities to accommodate the growing demands of tourism in a sustainable way. Towns are encouraged to incorporate solar panels in their heating system, restrict building height to three storeys, keep parking places to a minimum away from buildings to eliminate noise and fumes, keep motorways away from Green areas, restrict vehicular traffic through villages, designate cycle paths, recycle solid waste and



waste water, restrict building to specific town sites only, encourage organic farming in adjacent farmlands, discriminate in favour of sustainable craftsmen, build low scale hotels by using natural products, ensure that farmers be able to sell their products locally, and grow and harvest local natural pharmaceutical and medicinal plants. The purpose of such philosophy is to benefit the community and the tourism industry. The planning should be based on a concept that will offer environmentally friendly development. It will also require a year round visitors' marketing and promotion strategy with linkage to the Qadisha valley, the Crown villages and other regional ski facilities (see paras 4.4.1, 4.4.2, 4.4.3).

## **8.6 Conclusion**

In order for rural out-migration to be reduced, the research calls for the creation of the Qadisha-Cedars National Park. This will be the best means for the protection and development of the social, natural, cultural and financial capitals of the region. It will also be considered a proper solution to overcome the tensions arising from disharmonious development. The answer to the research question about how to reduce rural migration will be done through proposing interconnected development and management plans between two different zones of the Park. A zone includes the Qadisha valley and the Cedars forest and is very rich in natural and cultural assets and should be preserved in a sustainable manner for generations to come. A second zone includes the crown villages that overlook the valley and the Cedars region. This zone depends on the first for attracting tourism activities for the region and should be developed in a way not to threaten the sustainability of the first zone.

One difficulty of implementing and monitoring the management process will stem from the fact that many of the decision makers who have the first say in reaching an answer to the problem on how to develop the region have different goals and insights from the ones who are directly concerned. These local decision makers favour a fast profit that is reached by investing in fast track developments in the Qadisha valley and the surrounding region to accommodate a big number of tourists visiting the sites. They don't care about the negative effect that this could



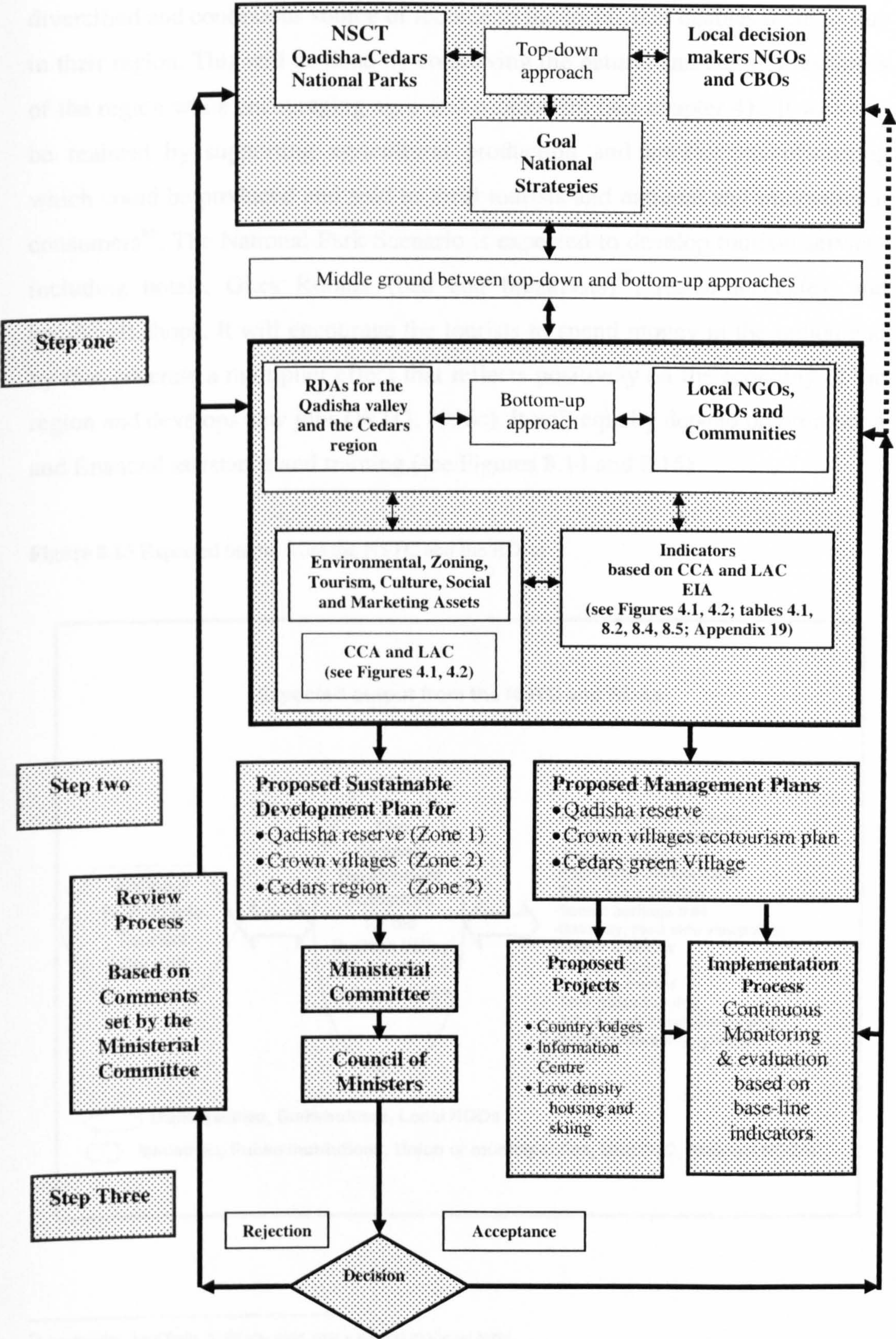
do on the region on the long-term. For that a National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC), a Region Development Authority (RDA) and a development and management framework for the region are essential to guarantee proper procedures to follow for developing the Qadisha-Cedars National Park. For that, the study has produced a model which should be used as a tool to develop the valley of the Qadisha, the Crown Villages and the Cedars region.

The model is introduced to show how the national authorities represented by the NSTC and the local authorities represented by the RDAs should work hand in hand to develop plans, policies, guidelines and indicators for the application of future activities in the two concerned zones (see Figure 8.1). Complying with the steps presented by the model will assure continuous follow up and update of the management and development plans for the region. It will secure full synchronization between the various propositions that will be suggested for the development and protection of the Park, and will help foresee the positive effects that could result from applying these proposals (see Figure 8.14).

The creation of a National Park will offer through the NSTC the chance for the region to exchange experience and information in the fields of tourism and environment by putting into place “*bilateral conventions*” with several National Parks in the Mediterranean basin. It will establish bilateral, cross-border accords with neighbouring countries. This multilateral level of cooperation that is based on the exchange of environmental and tourism information and technical support will include the development and management of international ecotourism between home and host countries. It will embrace co-operation in areas related to Park management and planning by using methods, and techniques that are compatible with sustainable development. Equally the two RDAs will encourage partnership between local land owners, farmers, producers and developers in the region. It will promise a bottom-up synergy between the public and the private sector and encourage investors to start developing rural lodge facilities i.e. Bed and Breakfast type (Panda lodges, see para 5.5.3) and the convents and the order of nuns to develop local products such as wine, jam and religious handcrafts (see Figure 8.15).



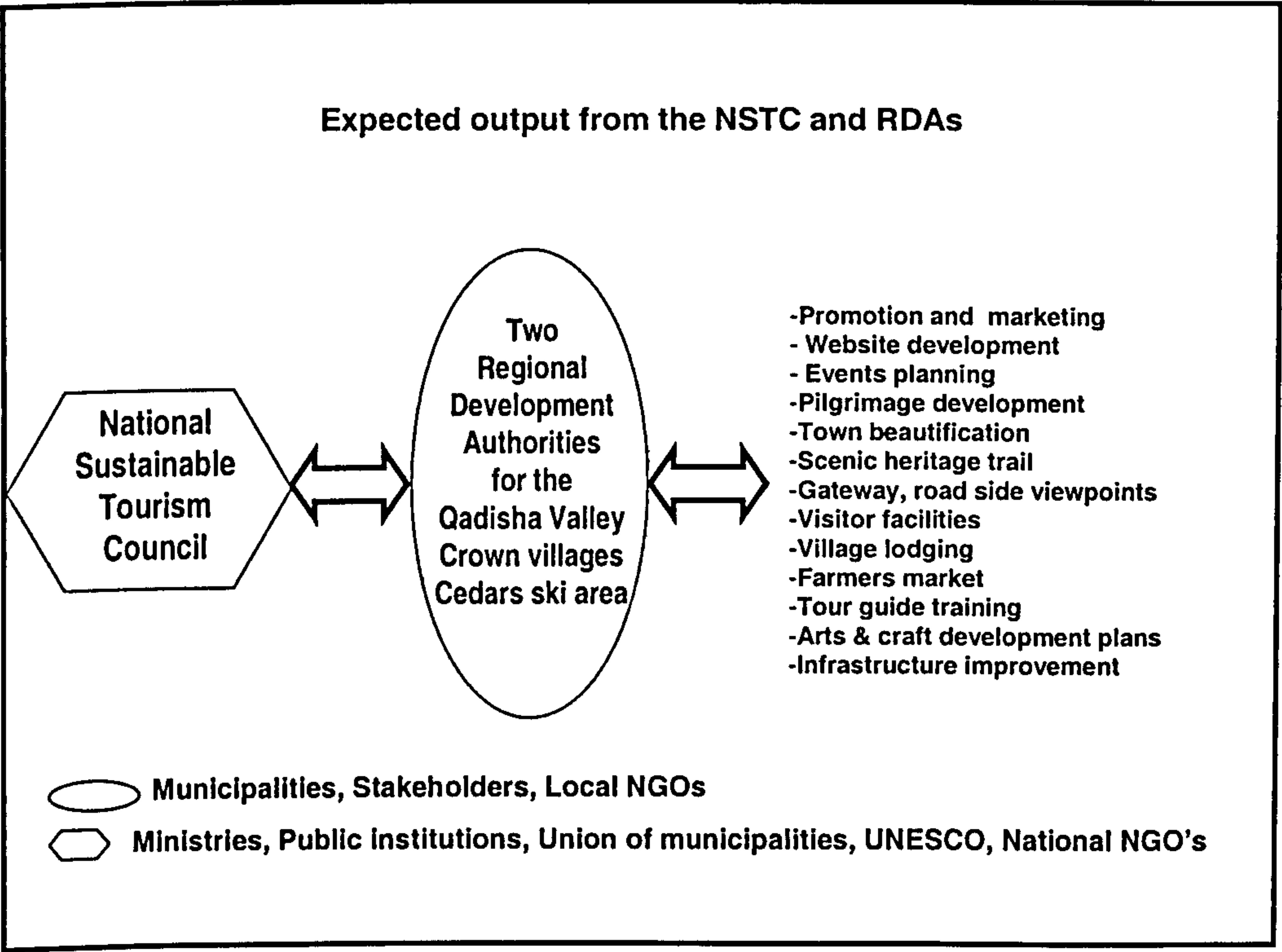
Figure 8.14 Model for the development of propositions in the Qadisha-Cedars National Park





The National Park scenario will halt rural exodus to the city by generating a diversified and continuous source of income to the locals that enables them to stay in their region. This will be done by conserving the natural and cultural resources of the region while encouraging agro and ecotourism (see chapter 4). It will also be realized by supporting agricultural production and artefact manufacturing which could be produced and sold to local tourists and national and international consumers<sup>85</sup>. The National Park Scenario is expected to develop tourism services including hotels, Gîtes Ruraux (bed and breakfasts)<sup>86</sup>, restaurants/cafes, and handicraft shops. It will encourage the tourists to spend money in the region and by that generate a multiplier effect that reflects positively on the economy of the region and develops new jobs (WTO, 1996c). It will equally depend on promotion and financial assistance and training (see Figures 8.14 and 8.15).

**Figure 8.15** Expected output from the NSTC and the RDAs



<sup>85</sup> Apple cider, dried fruits, molasses, wine, rose water and medicinal herbs.  
<sup>86</sup> The concept of *Gîtes Ruraux* follows a program established by *Gîtes de France (Panda)*. It promotes country holidays in natural settings, with the objective of preserving the heritage and contributing to development of the local economy.



Finally, it is through improved facilities, human resource training, marketing and promotion, coordination between the public and private sectors, conservation of the natural and cultural assets and well diversified development plans that sustainable tourism and ecotourism will thrive. This success will be due to the use of the National Park concept, which will offer a chance for these activities to happen. This concept can develop a source of revenue for the locals and by that reduces rural migration and promises a better future for the Qadisha-Cedars region.



## **9 CONCLUSION**



## 9.1 Introduction

This Chapter discusses the major stages that the research passed through. It highlights on the important issues that were raised and the accomplishments that were reached. The chapter also comments on the significance of the findings and concludes with a set of recommendations and future steps to follow.

## 9.2 The findings

The research selected Lebanon as an area of study. It recognized rural depopulation as a major problem that is causing damage to its natural and cultural resources. As an answer to depopulation and to the damage of the natural and cultural resources in rural areas, this study analysed concepts like *sustainable development*, *rural livelihood* and *ecotourism*. It traced their origins in search for a cause to this phenomenon and a way to control its negative effect. The research found that in most developing countries rural families with limited income are found to misuse their local natural and cultural assets, or migrate to urban areas in search for a source of living. In both situations the rural natural and cultural capital which forms the basis for their long-term survival are threatened (UNDP, 2003a; 2003b; World Bank, 1990a; 1990b; 1992; 1997).

### 9.2.1 Concepts for rural development

The study acknowledges that Sustainable Development can help preserve the natural and cultural assets in rural areas. This can be done by developing a diversified livelihood strategy for the rural area according to guide lines and indicators that are recommended by Agenda 21 and based on a mechanism for continuous evaluation and monitoring of this strategy. This process guarantees long-term protection of the natural, cultural and social assets (DOE, 1995; Flora *et al.*, 2004; IBRD, 1997; RDC, 1998a; 1998b; Shepherd, 1998). A diversified rural livelihood strategy improves future livelihood prospects through the reduction of risk, vulnerability and poverty by assuring to the local population a steady and satisfactory revenue by investing on the *natural, human, social, financial and physical capitals* (see Figure 3.1) (Berry, 1993; Bigsten, 1996; Dalal-Clayton *et*



*al.*, 2003; Davies, 1996; Davies *et al.*, 1997; Ellis, 2000; Frank 2000). It offers local developers the possibility to invest in more than one activity, and in so doing, reduces the risk of relying on one source of income for living. It also gives a chance for investors to find funding sources for these projects (Dalal-Clayton and Bass, 2002; IBRD, 1997; Ginther, 1995; Rao, 2000). The development and implementation of a diversified strategy is based on a governance policy that relies on a combination of *horizontal* and *vertical* approaches for the sharing of ideas. These approaches allow the different stakeholders and social groups to participate in the development process (Bass *et al.*, 1995; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002). This process shapes rural livelihood options and decisions and eliminates short-term investments rely on making a quick return and do damage to the non-renewable natural and cultural capitals of the region.

This study also considers ecotourism activities as well as appropriate natural and cultural resource management crucial elements in the development process as part of a diversified strategy and a main source of revenue for rural areas (Moseley, 2003; Redclif *et al.*, 1994; Towner, 1996; WTO, 1996c). It considers ecotourism an activity that could benefit the economy, society, culture and education of the host community (Butler, 1998; Hall, 2001). According to the study, ecotourism, if properly managed, conserves and preserves the natural and cultural resources.

To achieve a successful development and management process for the tourism sector, government agencies and NGOs, as well as private sectors and local communities, must be involved. The process should be accompanied by good marketing, promotional and funding campaigns (Inskeep, 1994; WTO, 1994b). The development and management approaches should focus on reaching an agreement by the stakeholders, managers, local NGOs and CBOs on an ecotourism strategy that deals with land-use, natural and cultural resources. The aim of these site development and management processes is to achieve the desired social, environmental and economic conditions together with a Visitor's Management Plan (VMP) for the sites and a Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) for each site. The CCA guarantees a positive impact on the region's *social*, *cultural*, and *physical* components. This assessment is based on a survey of the



economic and environmental assets of the region as well as interacting with local societies to exchange experiences and ideas and to assure the involvement of local residents in decision making (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Dowling, 1993; Kozlowski, 1990; Ross *et al.*, 1999; Stankey *et al.*, 1985).

Finally, the research found that a successful, sustainable and diversified rural livelihood strategy can be reached. It should merge the physical and cultural elements, with the ecotourism attractions, services and infrastructure. The application of this strategy is needed to generate income for the local residents, reduce out-migration and protect the natural and cultural resources (see Appendix 6) (Consulting and Audit Canada, 1995; Manning, 1996a; Tourism Concern, 1992).

### 9.2.2 Discussion

There is a difference between theory and reality that is shown in the conflict between short-term economic progress and sustainable development, whereby economic gain can threaten the ecology and the social stability which are major elements for sustainable development in a region. The same thing can happen with respect to ecotourism development where the urge for quick financial gain can be destructive. Ecotourism development, if not properly planned, applied and monitored can threaten the natural and cultural systems of the site. It can introduce new economic activities, traditions and cultures that could work against the moral values and ethics of the host community. In order to counter this negative trend, appropriate ecotourism site development and management strategies that rely on the conservation of the natural and cultural assets of the destination area must be applied. This process must be accompanied by an understanding of the natural system, social and cultural characteristics, customs and traditions of the region under study.



### 9.2.3 National Parks an ecotourism development framework

The study investigated case studies like Yellowstone, Banff and Cévennes National Park to address the value of development and management policies and strategies in natural areas. These case studies created an insight into the development and management process of rural livelihood (Stake, 1994; Stake 1995; Yin, 2003a). Based on that, this study considers natural reserves and national parks to be the main agents of social and economic change, where local people are stakeholders within the Park and where their social and economic activities - such as ecotourism and organic farming - are part of the ecological sustainability of the region. These parks and natural reserves have become major locations for ecotourism development. They have a main role to play in protecting the environment and encouraging developing countries like Lebanon to apply proper ecotourism strategies in their natural reserves (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Chase, 1987).

National governments in North American and some European countries like France have, over the last forty years, applied a “top-down” approach to the development and management of their national parks that focuses mainly on preserving their natural and cultural assets. This policy is based on firm ministerial decrees, direct involvement of the public authorities and minor participation by local communities, stakeholders and other non-governmental organizations.

In the recent management and development programme (2000-2006) set by the administrators of “Cévennes National Park” this policy changed (see Figure 9.1; Appendix 12) (ATEN, 2001). In the year 2000, the administration of the “Cévennes National Park” started to implement sustainable development principles set by the local Agenda 21 and the “European Charter for Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas”<sup>87</sup> (<http://www.europarc.org>) (see Appendix 13). This was evident in the 2000-2006 management plan which tried to apply a bottom-up policy with respect to developing a management and development strategy for the

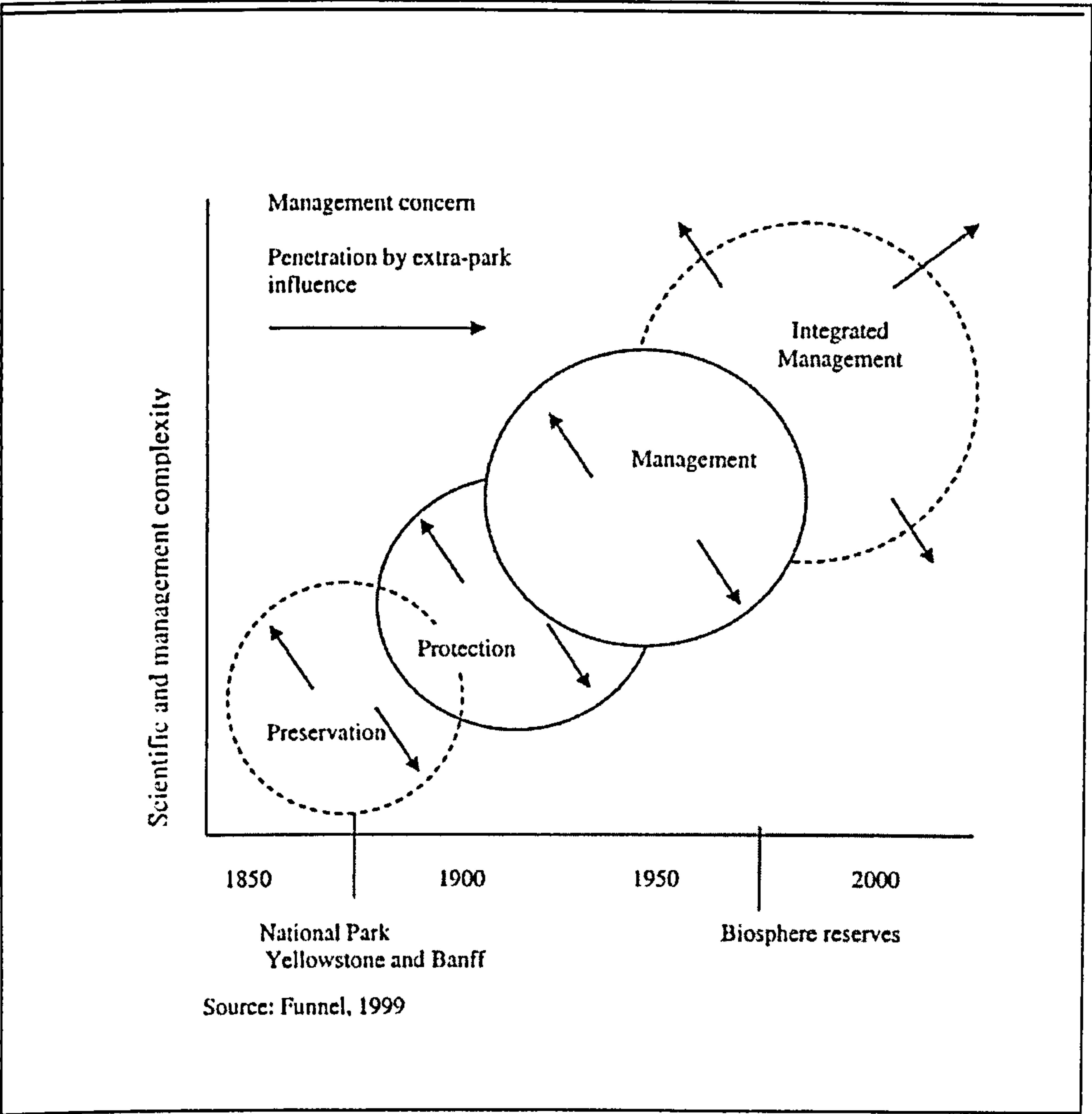
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<sup>87</sup> This charter was developed by the Europarc federation in 1991.



Park (see Appendix 12) (DATAR, 2001; European Commission, 2003; Ifen, 2000; 2002; MATE, 2000) (see abbreviations list).

**Figure 9.1** The evolution of the Park’s management process



The development and management authority of the Cévennes Park used for its management a process similar to that of the *Limits of Acceptable Change* (LAC). This process focused on managing to reach “desired conditions” based on a managerial indicators-development ATLAS that outlined the actual setting, and through a baseline inventory (see Figure 4.2) (ARDEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001). The administration made an effort to protect and sustain the natural and cultural resources through a continuous monitoring process that evaluated the facts and suggested modifications (ARADEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001). There was no evidence that Carrying Capacity Assessments were applied prior to the development of



management programmes for the park (Kuss *et al.*, 1990; Lime *et al.*, 1996; Manning, 1986a; Page *et al.*, 2002; Shelby, 1996; Stankey *et al.*, 1985). The consecutive management programmes for the development of the Cévennes National Park were able to increase the number of permanent residents by 2 % and to develop 1500 new job opportunities (ARADEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001; ATLAS, 2000; Auzeby, 2002).

#### 9.2.4 Discussion

The research considers that the cause for some ineffective performances in the Cévennes National Park was due to the following reasons: *firstly*, rigid institutional structure (the concept of the parks and their policy), polarization of power by the park authorities and self-serving political interests that influence park management; *secondly*, disagreement, , lack of trust and miscommunication between local people and park authorities which leads to risk and uncertainty in entering into discussions to reduce conflict between the local residents of the park and the national authorities; *thirdly*, large number of different stakeholders in the park and absence of opportunity for all to participate in the decision-making process; *fourthly*, temptation of local people to use and abuse the park's resources; and finally, increased unrestrained tourist visitations (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Eidsvik, 1983; Hough, 1988; Lovejoy, 1992; Murphy, 1985; Nelson, 1976).

Some local residents complained that the administration had failed to develop a bottom-up approach in the development process because it did not launch enough general assemblies to discuss the park's major issues and concerns. Other inhabitants of the park pointed out that most of their social and economic needs had not so far been fulfilled by the park's management authority. One of the main reasons for this failure was that the administration did not develop proper marketing policies to attract tourists. It did not make enough effort to look for outside markets for the local residents' agricultural and artefact products. Equally, it did not communicate with other Parks around the world for the purpose of exchanging experience in site development, management and marketing. Belatedly, the administration of the park started to look for funding from programmes such as the LEADER programme (DATAR, 2001). The Park



administration should reduce its reliance on the national budget and help local producers meet their international requirements in terms of quality and management standards of their services and production by developing a private public partnership approach. This will give a better chance for local producers and manufacturers to find local, national and regional markets for their agro-pastoral and artefact products and get funds from international organizations and agencies as in the case of the LEADER programme (DATAR, 2001).

It is true that the concepts, policies and strategies of the Cévennes National Park helped reduce rural out-migration. But in order for this development and management approach to be used as a prototype for proper development and management of natural and cultural assets on other sites, major adjustments should be made to its policy like:

- Developing a rural diversified strategy to enhance the local farmers and developers' performance and production abilities.
- Ensuring appropriate funding to support the projects proposed by the diversified strategies.
- Executing marketing and promotion action plans for the local products and tourism services on a local, national and international level that includes capacity building for tour operators and local residents.
- Applying a bottom-up strategy between the public and the private sectors of the Park that is based on public private partnership.
- Accompanying the strategy with a horizontal communication policy between the concerned public institutions to assure continuous planning and coordination to avoid the polarisation of decisions.
- Defining a clear base line for evaluating the progress of the park; this could be in the form of indicators and guidelines. The actual baseline of inventory and indicators is not well defined (see Figure 4.2) (ARDEL, 1999; ATEN, 2001).

#### 9.2.5 Evaluation of the final results

The rural areas of Lebanon have natural and cultural assets and a potential for developing national parks as a major ecotourism destination. On the other hand,



these regions lack sustainable development policies and are faced with depopulation and degradation of their natural and cultural resources. Equally, there has been no serious attempt by consecutive national governments to decentralize the administration by allocating more funds to the local municipalities and giving them a role in the development of strategies (Barakat, 2005; CDR, 1994, 1997, 1999, and 2004; Fawaz, 2002). Such decentralisation can directly engage the local municipalities, NGOs and CBOs in the development, implementation and monitoring process of their natural and cultural assets.

The national government does not allocate resources to generate ideas for sustainable development nor does it put enough effort into raising public awareness about “environmental problems”. Equally, it does not invest in income-generating activities in a sector like ecotourism (Fawaz, 2002; Mallat, 1997; Nehme, 2001; UNDP, 2000). Meanwhile, the locals in rural regions are badly in need of guidance to help them identify their needs and sustain their assets. The failure of some local residents to manage the Qadisha-Cedars properly was demonstrated through their acceptance to build large scale development in the valley and its surrounding area. Their major aim was quick economic gain. This is contrary to the schemes that were recommended by the Directorate General of Urban Planning (DGU), UNESCO and the Patriarchate. Many propositions that were presented by a number of rich and leading local deputies are short-term based, create permanent damage to the fauna, flora, and cultural assets of the Qadisha-Cedars and reduce the chance of small local entrepreneurs developing small and medium projects such as rural lodges, small scale family run businesses and restaurants.

#### 9.2.6 Discussion

The research identified that local decision makers and politicians are not ready to cope with their own natural and cultural assets in a sustainable manner. They need strict guidance and supervision, as well as a series of awareness campaigns and capacity building sessions, before they can start developing their own policies and strategies for the region. The research also considered sustainable development and rural livelihood as an appropriate solution to poverty alleviation in the rural



areas of Lebanon. This solution is reached by forcing the government through active NGOs, academia and other local and national unions to develop a Sustainable and Diversified Rural Livelihood Strategy. This strategy must focus on Ecotourism for generating economic activities by investing in the natural and cultural assets of the region and applying participatory ways to involve the local residents in decision-making. In this way, the strategy can help reduce poverty by protecting and enhancing the essential renewable and non-renewable natural resources and cultural heritage of the region.

The richness of Lebanon in natural and cultural capital facilitates the development of a *Rural Livelihood Strategy* by applying the following recommendations:

- Develop tourism and ecotourism services in the region such as hotels, Gîtes Ruraux (bed and breakfasts), restaurants/cafes and manufactured artefacts and create local employment opportunities and by that reducing unemployment and out-migration to the urban areas.
- Search for funding for tourism and agricultural projects and generate markets for agricultural products that could be sold to local tourists, as well as national and international consumers;
- Generate indicators and guidelines for managing and monitoring the site based on LAC and CCA. This approach will preserve the natural and cultural assets and stop illegal construction and zoning violations (see Figures 8.4; 8.5; 8.6; 8.7);
- Build local capacity through training programmes for the local NGOs, CBOs and municipalities, and with other countries through the “twinning of villages”.

The study proposes for the Lebanese rural areas that are facing depopulation and damage to their natural and cultural assets onwards - *Firstly*, the study proposes that those rural areas that are facing depopulation, be declared national parks. *Secondly*, the Qadisha-Cedars case study should be seen as a prototype and its guidelines and principles be applied to any potential national park. This will ensure proper development; management and application of a “sustainable rural livelihood strategy” (see Figure 9.2) (Blalock, 1982; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2002; Frankfort and Nachimas, 1992). As for applying the national park concept, a model that includes



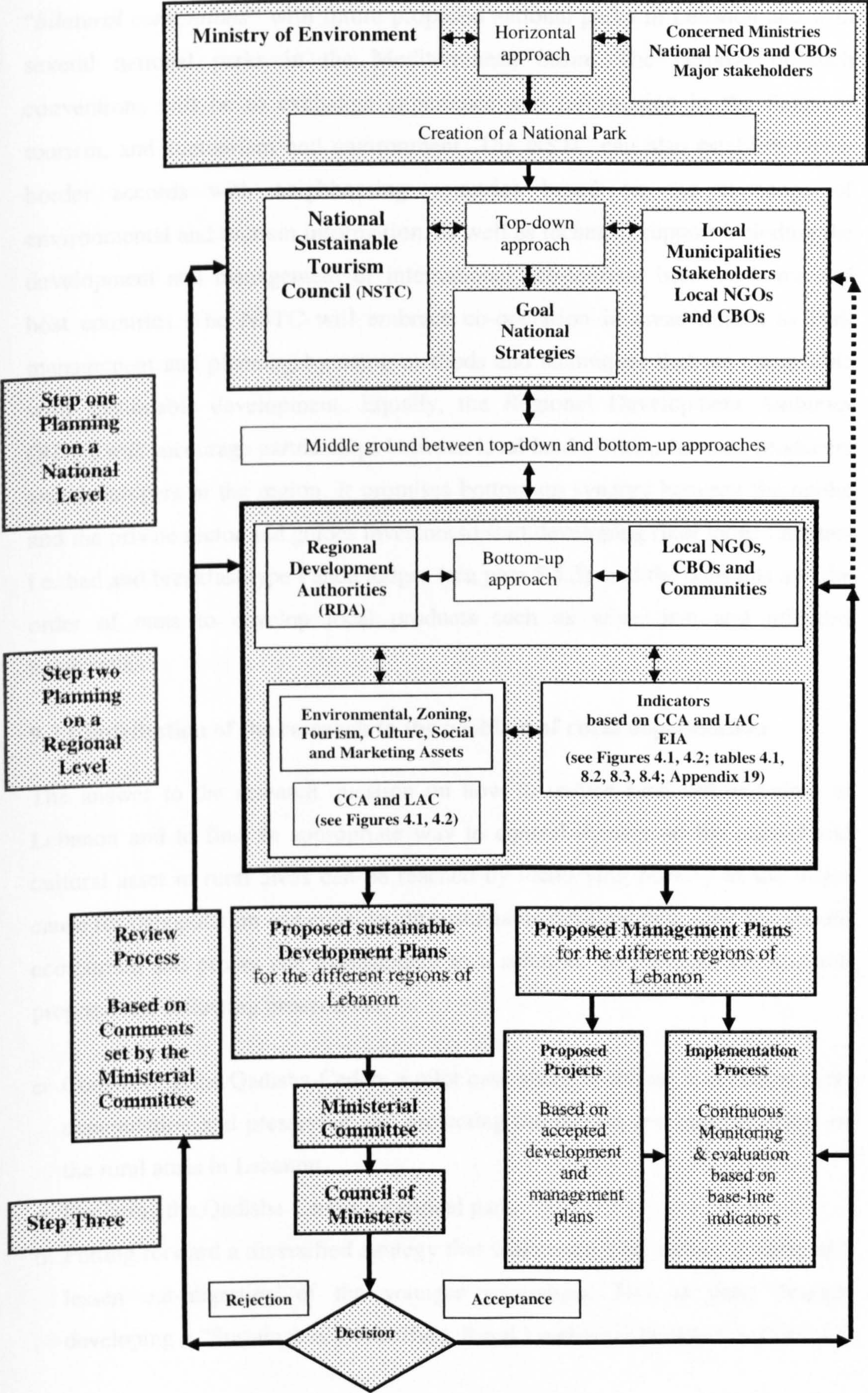
the guidelines and recommendations set during the course of the research was developed (see Figures 8.3 and 8.14). It suggests propositions to meet the needs of the region under study (see Figure 9.2) (Bryman, 2001, Brannen *et al.*, 1992; Robson, 2000; Van der Heijden, 2002).

Since the national government of Lebanon is not familiar with the national park approach, the model proposes as a *first step* a horizontal participatory approach between the National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC) and the interested national public institutions, ministries and national communities to propose the creation of a potential “national park” for a selected region (see Figure 9.3). The model then suggests a “top-down” consultation approach between the National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC) and the local stakeholders, NGOs, CBOs and politicians to define a vision and a goal for the strategy of the potential national park. The “top-down” approach guarantees that issues like sustainable rural livelihood (of national interest) is taken into consideration at an early stage of the planning process. The model also suggests a bottom-up interaction approach between the RDA and the local NGOs and CBOs for a better understanding of the local residents’ aims, goals and needs.

In *step two*, a middle ground interaction approach is advocated between the NSTC and the RDA. This process reduces the polarisation of power and renders the suggested plans and strategies more achievable. It can guarantee feedback and support from the local municipalities, communities and stakeholders. It also makes sure that sustainable development is reached by requesting an assessment of the region’s natural and cultural capital. The assessment will be based on the application of CCA and LAC methods, the development of indicators and continuous monitoring, evaluation and coordination (see Figures 4.1; 4.2; 9.2 and Tables 4.1; 8.2; 8.3; 8.4). In *step three*, the model proposes presenting the final development plans and strategies to the council of ministers for approval. After the endorsement of the proposals by the national government these plans will then be subjected to detailed scrutiny, continuous monitoring, supervision and updating by the Regional Development Authority RDA (see Figure 9.2).



Figure 9.2 Model for the Development and Management of future National Parks in Lebanon





The National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC) offers the chance for “*bilateral conventions*” with future proposed national parks in Lebanon and with several national parks in the Mediterranean basin. The purpose of such conventions will be to exchange experience and information in the fields of tourism, and ecotourism and environment. The NSTC can also establish cross-border accords with neighbouring countries based on the exchange of environmental and tourism information, as well as technical support including the development and management of international eco-tourism between home and host countries. The NSTC will embrace co-operation in areas related to Park management and planning by using methods and techniques that are compatible with sustainable development. Equally, the Regional Development Authority (RDA) will encourage partnerships between local land owners, farmers, producers and developers in the region. It promises bottom-up synergy between the public and the private sector and guides investors to start developing rural lodge facilities i.e. bed and breakfast type Panda lodges (see para 5.5.3) and the convents and the order of nuns to develop local products such as wine, jam and religious handcrafts.

### **9.3 Contribution of the research to the problem of rural depopulation**

The answer to the research question on how to reduce rural out-migration in Lebanon and to find an appropriate way to control damage to the natural and cultural asset in rural areas can be reached by identifying poverty as the major cause for depopulation and considering sustainable development, rural livelihood, ecotourism and proper site management as a solution. To this end, the research proposes the following procedures:

- Considering the Qadisha-Cedars a pilot case study to follow in reducing rural depopulation and preserving and protecting the natural and cultural assets of the rural areas in Lebanon.
- Declaring the Qadisha-Cedars a national park.
- Putting forward a diversified strategy that will create jobs, reduce poverty and lessen out-migration of the younger generation. This is done through developing a “Sustainable, Diversified, Rural Livelihood Ecotourism Plan” for



the Crown Villages of the valley and a “Green Village” in the Cedars skiing region. These plans will generate a source of income for the locals and create incentives that lead to the protection, conservation and improvement of the residents’ own belongings.

- Searching for appropriate funding to sustain the projects proposed by the diversified strategies.
- Controlling disharmonious development through developing appropriate land-use plans for the region (Curry, 1994; RDC, 1998a).
- Application of a series of workshops and conferences for training in capacity building activities, since it develops the local communities’ competence in craftsmanship, marketing, hostelry, ecotourism and site management. Bilateral conventions with other national parks in the region mainly France and Spain are also encouraged. It assures capacity building and the exchange of ideas.
- Continuous monitoring and evaluation process while implementing indicators and guidelines that are set based on CCA and LAC, and are placed in the model to ensure sustainability; conservation and development of the proposed plans and strategies (see Figure 9.2).

Such procedures will help keep the indigenous people on their land, and offer them safety, satisfaction and a sense of pleasure and enjoyment. They will encourage in them a feeling of attachment and allegiance to their traditions, costumes and cultural heritage.

### 9.3.1 Reflections and lessons learned

Reflexivity is considered by Bourdieu (1992) among others as an inspiration to practice an objective social science research. It helps the author become more aware of the biases in the research process and avoids them. In the context of this study, the researcher is a senior architect and urban planner involved in developing plans for Lebanon at a national level. His position as a civil and technical officer offers him direct contact with the rural population, stakeholders and decision makers in Lebanon and France. It also exposes him to some of the worries and concerns that most rural residents share. This makes him aware of their direct needs and requirements (see para 7.4).



The researcher's reflexivity has helped him in the selection of the topic, concepts, case studies, research method, analysis approach, and conclusion reached (see para 2.2.1) (Bartlett, 1987; Bourdieu, 1992; Neuman, 2003; Gough and McFadden, 2001). It also helped in understanding the context of the area of study, that is the natural, social, environmental, economic and governance factors that surround rural regions (Wilkinson, 1988). Reflexivity again played a factor in the discussions raised by the author about the validity of some previous attempts made by public authorities for the development of the Qadisha-Cedars area of study and other regions of Lebanon (see paras 7.5 and 7.6) (Bartlett, 1987; Webber, 1974).

Certain difficulties were encountered during the research process for two reasons. *Firstly*, the concepts that were used were relatively new, and *secondly*, there was little data available about the validity of these concepts as a long-term solution to rural depopulation, especially in developing countries. Equally, there were no successful case studies in the neighbouring region of study (Syria, Jordan and Iraq) to demonstrate how a phenomenon like rural depopulation can be dealt with by proper natural resource management. As a result the author had to select case studies in developed countries like USA, Canada and France.

Concerning the case studies of Banff and Yellowstone in North America, there was difficulty gathering data on the selected areas of study for two reasons. The first one was that the author could not visit these sites, and the second reason was the shortage of information about the problems that these sites were facing and especially on rural depopulation. As for the case studies of "Cévennes national parks" and the "Qadisha-Cedars", the author was able to visit the sites, interview local residents and administrators and gather sufficient amount of data for analysis (see para 8.2). Due to the lack of data on how to deal with rural depopulation on the case studies of Banff and Yellowstone, compromises were made by the author to focus more on the case studies in France and Lebanon.

Ultimately, the author was able to identify concepts and case studies to shape the research study. He discussed their potential contribution and reported plenty of details about them, to give the reader a clear idea about how the final results materialized. Equally, the author considers the research a useful learning tool on how to develop a



sustainable solution to reduce rural depopulation. He also finds the solutions proposed by the research objective, unbiased and reliable (see paras 2.2.2 and 8.2) (Gouldner, 1976; Moore, 1973; Weber, 1974).

### 9.3.2 Recommendation for further research

It should be acknowledged that in Lebanon there are no national parks and there is a need to develop rules and regulations prior to the application of the “proposed model” for the creation of national parks. For that, continuous review and evaluation is required on the Cévennes National Park (CNP) being an example to follow for the development of parks in Lebanon. The evaluation must focus on the ability of the “CNP 2000-2006 development programme” to reach a successful rural livelihood strategy that can reduce out-migration (see para 5.5.3). The evaluation must also update the changes that could happen on the data collected for research analysis. Such change in information can influence the future trend in the development of national parks in the Qadisha-Cedars and other regions of the country.

## 9.4 Future implications

The centralised and rigid administrative systems of the “top-down” approaches followed by Lebanon and France have so far failed to fully involve their local communities in the management of natural and cultural assets. In Lebanon, the local communities and municipalities do not know how to sustain their natural and cultural resources. For that it is advisable in the short-term to follow a “middle-ground approach” for the management and development of their natural and cultural resources. This approach will be the output of a “bottom-up” policy applied by the Regional Development Authorities (RDAs). It will be based on continuous meetings with the local NGOs, CBOs, academia, stakeholders and other concerned people to guarantee their full participation in the management, development and protection strategies of their own natural and cultural resources. It will also be the result of a “top-down” policy applied by the national government that will ensure proper supervision and guidance of these management strategies (see Figure 9.3).



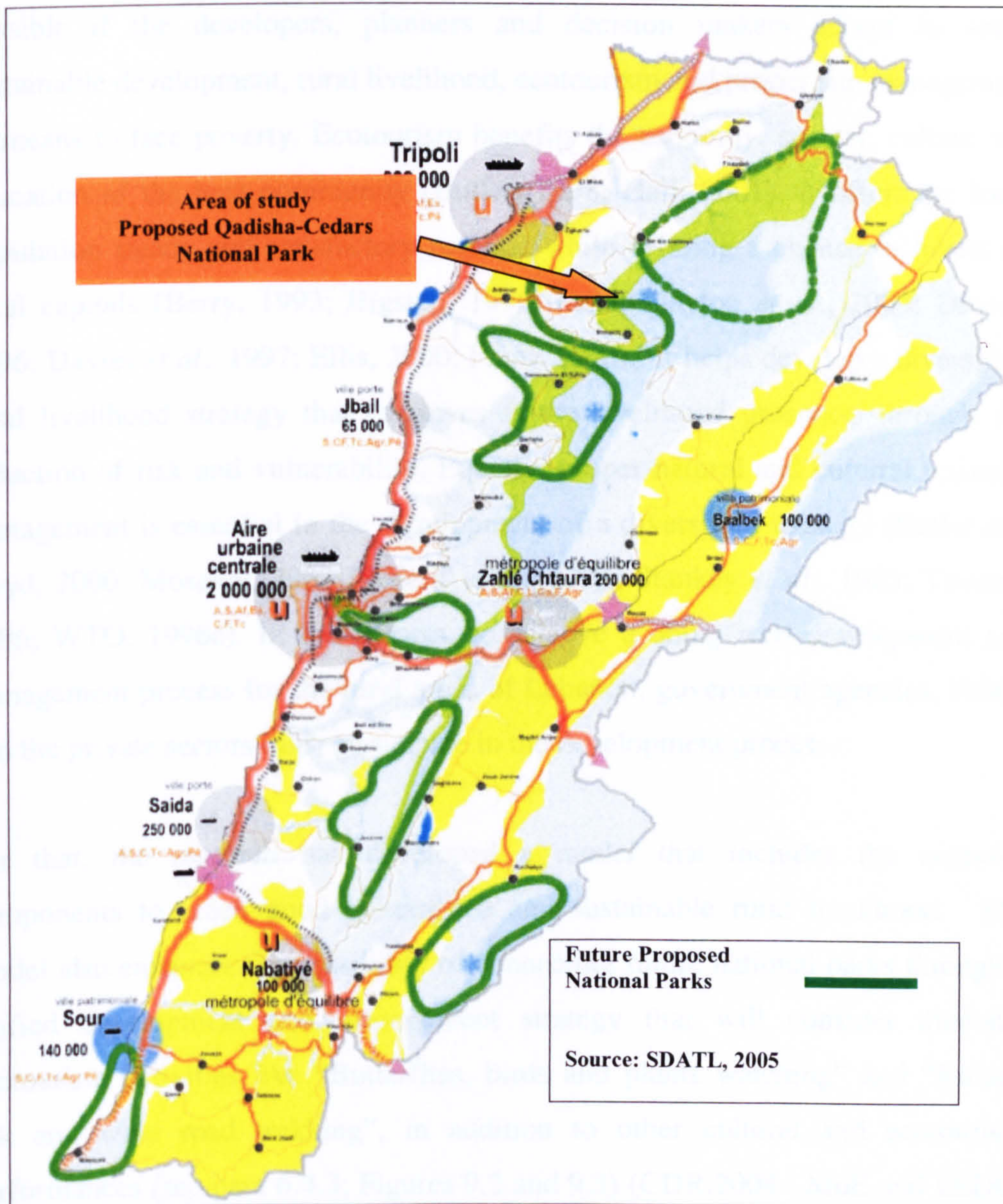
For all that, the research has developed a model that includes most of the essential components that good governance requires, and sustainable rural livelihood necessitates. This model will assure flexibility whereby the number of national Non-governmental (NGOs) and Community Based Organisations (CBOs) that will take part in the National Sustainable Tourism Council (NSTC) can increase or decrease depending on their availability and readiness to participate in the development and management process (see Figures 8.2; 8.3; 9.2).

The same is true with respect to the number of local NGOs and CBOs that will be represented in the RDAs. The NSTC, in collaboration with the RDA, will implement sustainable diversified strategies that generate income for local population, look for sources of funds for selected projects and market the local products. It will also twin with other international parks in order to exchange experience and generate capacity building for the local residents.

As mentioned in chapters 6 and 7, Lebanon is rich with natural and cultural assets and natural reserves. The next step that the research recommends is to apply the “model for the creation of national parks” to include the rest of the natural reserves in Lebanon (see Figures 1.3; 9.3) (MoE and LEDO, 2002).



Figure 9.3 Projection of the future National Parks in Rural Lebanon





## 9.5 Conclusion

The research concludes that in rural areas out-migration and damage to the natural and cultural assets can be lessened by reducing poverty. This can be made possible if the developers, planners and decision makers accept to apply sustainable development, rural livelihood, ecotourism and proper site management as means to face poverty. Ecotourism benefits the economy, society, culture and education of the host community (Butler, 1998; Hall, 2001). It offers the local population steady and satisfactory revenue while offering a chance to invest on local capitals (Berry, 1993; Bigsten, 1996; Dalal-Clayton *et al.*, 2003; Davies, 1996; Davies *et al.*, 1997; Ellis, 2000; Frank 2000). It helps develop a diversified rural livelihood strategy that improves future livelihood prospects through the reduction of risk and vulnerability. Equally, proper natural and cultural resource management is essential in the development of a diversified strategy (Butler and Boyd, 2000; Moseley, 2003; Redclif *et al.*, 1994; Stankey *et al.*, 1985; Towner, 1996; WTO, 1996c). In this respect, to achieve a doing well development and management process for the rural areas of Lebanon, government agencies, NGOs and the private sectors must participate in the development process.

For that, the research has developed a model that includes the essential components to reach good governance and sustainable rural livelihood. The model also enhances the possibility of connecting future national parks through a unified development and management strategy that will consider thematic ecotourism activities like “Butterflies, birds and plants watching” and “Roman silk and wine road trekking”, in addition to other cultural and ecotourism performances (see para 6.4.3; Figures 9.2 and 9.3) (CDR,2004 ; MoE and LEDO, 2002; JICA *et al.*, 2004). However a major factor in facing poverty will be the readiness and willingness of the national and local governments, non-governmental organisations, communities and academia to adopt diversified strategies for their rural regions. These strategies will guarantee long-term success and sustainability for these regions.



## **Appendices**



## **Appendix 1 List of individuals interviewed in France**

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-Bernard Commandre Technical officer at (ATEN)  
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-Xavier Pican Commissioner at (Chamber of agriculture)  
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### **Sample of the questions that were directly asked to the administrators of the CNP**

*Q: Are you satisfied with the performance of the existing CNP management programme? What are its strengths and its weaknesses?*

*Q: Is there a full participation from the locals in the development of the 2000-2005 management programme for the park and what form did it take?*

*Q: Can the CNP generate enough revenue to cover its own management and development process?*

*Q: Is there a policy to reduce rural depopulation that is facing the CNP and if yes in what form?*

*Q: How can the CNP attain sustainable development?*

*Q: Is ecotourism an important element in the development of the CNP?*

*Q: Is Land-use planning an important factor in the preservation of the CNP and how?*

*Q: What are some of the major indicators that have helped developing ecotourism and preserving the natural and cultural assets of the CNP and what means are used to attain and to update these indicators?*

*Q: Is a diversified strategy that includes many forms of tourism, farming, and agricultural activities being adopted for reducing out- migration in the CNP?*



*Q: Is there a strategy by the management authority to attract the millions of tourists who come to the eastern coast of France?*

*Q: Are the locals satisfied with the CNP administrators' performance concerning management of the park and generation of income to the local residents, and what are some of the ways to assess these reactions?*

### **Questions addressed to some of the local residents**

*Q: Do you depend for a livelihood directly on activities applied in the CNP?*

*Q: Are there any major requirements that you find necessary to enhance your work?*

*Q: Does the CNP's administration offer you the basic services and opportunities to improve on your work?*

*Q: What are some of the propositions to improve on the CNP's administrators' performance so that it satisfies some of your needs and requirements?*

*Q: Do you feel directly concerned with the CNP management strategy?*

*Q: Did you participate in any public assembly held by the CNP administration?*



## **Appendix 2 Data and information collection process in the Qadisha-Cedars**

### Workshops

A series of workshops took place at the headquarters of the Kaem Makam in Bcharre. It included most of the municipalities that surrounds the valley, which are Tourza, Qnat, Hadath el Jubbah, Bkarkasha, Hasroun, Knaiouer, Ed Diman, Bazoun, Bcharre, Hadchit, Wadi Qanoubin, Blaouza and Brisat.

The main objectives of this workshop were:

- To identify visions, issues and priorities for the development of the region;
- To spot local resources for activity based projects;
- To recognize the stakeholders at the municipality and the community levels and to envisage their interest in a rural socio perspective;
- To identify in a spontaneous approach the needs of the local communities;
- To highlight the municipalities' administrative and social boundaries

The general topics discussed focused mainly on the following:

- Issues such as poverty;
- Visions and plans for social development by municipalities and communities;
- Identification of resources (Institutional, social, financial, industrial and commercial) and their proper exploitation for sustainable development purposes;
- Contribution of the local administration and the tourism sector in the development of visions and plans as well as demarcations between the private and the public sector

### General assembly

A general assembly was held on the 9<sup>th</sup> of August 2003 at the old Maronite patriarchate in Diman "the summer residence of the Maronite Patriarch".

Objectives:

The main purpose of this meeting was to highlight the major problems facing the valley and its surrounding villages. The local residents stated the following demands:

The development of a cultural road to the valley and to the existing villages  
Launch development initiatives to the locals and the residents of the valley through the creation of:

- Art and hand craft projects
- Giving priority in terms of jobs
- Capacity building in terms of tourist hosting
- Develop twin programmes with other similar towns in developed countries. This will help the local residents to enhance their living status based on the local inherited cult, cultural, and traditions.
- Facilitate the renovation of the existing valley houses through the development of an adopted "guide for the renovation and restoration" that is approved by the qualified sources and simplify and facilitate the administrative procedures of such process.

### The prospects of the local residents

The expectations of the valley residents can be summarized by the fulfilment of the above-mentioned demands. The villagers insisted on their willingness to stay on their land, and their acceptance to abide by the rules and regulations set by the authorized committee for the classification and preservation of their land.



## Objectives:

The main objectives were as follows:

- Identify resources, problems and visions related to the area of study
- Clarify the significance of the raised issues and find approaches to tackle them
- Formulate a common idea on socio- sustainability

## List of participants in the workshop on cultural heritage and sustainable ecotourism in the Bcharre region

at Hotel Chbat 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> of July 2003

Name	Position	Phone	Fax	E-mai
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Rami Eid	Head of Hadchit Municipality	03-321 329	06-645402	ritayeid@hotmail.conm
Hanna Taouk	The two Deputies of Bcharre's representative	03-758 407	06-671 444	
Robert Hadchit	Secretary general for the committee for the conservation of Qadisha valley	03-321 844	06-645 402	robhadchiti@hotmail.com
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Sonia Salim Khoury	Municipality of Bquorgacha	03-935 182		
Tony T. Khatar	Mayor of Wadi Qannoubine	06-511 064	06-511 064	
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Hassib Soukar	Municipality of Bcharre	06-672469		
Shahine Taouk	Municipality of Bcharre	03-552697		
John Elias	Municipality of Hadath El Joubbe	03-919446 06-671 104	06-671 104	
Georges Issa	Municipality of Bazoun	03-229073	06-591239	
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Appendix 3 Results of Face-to-Face Interviews in the Bcharre district

Background of Interviewees

Table-1 presents the list of interviewees in the Bcharre district. The interviewees were selected randomly but on a quota basis: at least two women, at least two persons below the age of 30, at least two persons more than 30 years old and at least two employed or with no fixed income/work.

There was a common negative evaluation of the existing situation. All answered that the conditions were getting worse and that unemployment was rising, especially among the youth, who are left with the alternative of emigration (and even that was becoming harder as some noted). They all had the perception that their region was ignored by the central government, which did not play its developmental role in the region. Most stated that adequate public services were lacking (such as 24-hour electricity) or were too expensive (such as electricity and phones).

Table-1 Interviewees in Bcharre District

Name / sex	Age	Place of residence	Occupation
Christiane Taouk / female	29	Bcharre	Unemployed/house-wife
Nadia Sikkar / female	18	Bcharre	Student / vocational school
Joseph Eid / male	40	Hadchit	Shop owner
Joseph Geagea / male	37	Bcharre	Teacher
Elie Taouk / male	20	Bcharre	Business student
Elias Kirouz / male	50	Bcharre	Farmer
George Kirouz / male	31	Hasroun	Unemployed
Kamal Shbeila / male	42	Bcharre	Shop owner
Samir Khoury / male	39	Bcharre	Engineer
George Baino / male	37	Bcharre	Public servant

Synthesis of the answers of interviewees' needs, and their region's needs

The region's needs were summed up with the need for more governmental attention to the development of the region (backing agriculture, better services, creation of jobs, either public service ones or encouraging companies to hire local people by some form of incentives). One student voiced the need for specialized vocational schools that train for available jobs. Another answered the need for a plan to encourage investments by expatriates in the services and industry sector of the region (MoI, 2000).



### Synthesis of the answers concerning the perception of tourism in the region and potential development

Participants feel that the region has not reached its tourist potential; for example, that it has not received its share of the flow of tourists that came to Lebanon in summer 2003. Reasons given were loss of electricity and running water which discourage foreign tourists, no promotion by the government for the region – the attention is focused on Beirut and Mount Lebanon. In addition, some noted that there are not enough hotels (only one reported no camping facilities). What is lacking are large events to attract tourists (such as international festivals) as well as promotion by authorities and a tourism plan for the region.

As for what kind of tourism is needed, the answers were mixed. Some wanted “nature loving tourists”, while others wanted the type of vacationers like in Mount Lebanon – those that rent houses for the summer. A third group wanted foreign tourists that spend several nights in hotels. Despite the focus on different aspects of tourism, all thought that they would benefit from tourism one way or another. The unemployed and the youth were ready to work in the tourism industry.

#### Interviews

##### 1). CT: Age 29/ Bcharre/ Un-employed/house-wife

*Q: What is the Socio- situation in your region? Can you be specific?*

A: very bad. Unemployment is very high, jobs do not pay enough and all the prices are rising.

*Q: You described the situation of Lebanon, what about the situation in your region?*

A: even worse! Leaving in order to go to Beirut or Jounieh doesn't ensure job opportunities like before.

*Q: What is the state of infrastructure in your region?*

A: not that good, especially, electricity that keeps getting cut.

*Q: What do you think are the needs of the region?*

A: more attention from the government, which should improve infrastructure and lower the prices of public services. It should also invest in development of the region, helping in creating jobs, mainly for youth, whose only alternative these days is emigrating outside of Lebanon.

*Q: Is it only the Central Government that is not doing enough?*

A: the municipality doesn't have enough resources to do much.

*Q: What is your evaluation of tourism in the region?*

A: It is weak unlike other parts of Lebanon like Mount-Lebanon.

*Q: Does the state of the general infrastructure and tourist infrastructure play a role in the low numbers of tourists?*

A: Of course! Tourists will not stay where there is no electricity, especially in this heat, and after a while because of the lack of electricity there is water shortage. There are hotels in the region but there are no programmes to market tourism here, or for giving information for tourists.

*Q: What kind of tourism do you think the region needs/ benefits the most from?*

A: Nature loving tourists. The region can be gold mine for this kind of tourism: people wanting forests, valleys, clean air and tranquility. The region is the best for camping.

*Q: what will be the impact of such tourism?*

A: it will bring money and jobs while not changing the nice atmosphere for the inhabitants.

##### 2). N.S: Age 18/ Becharre/ Student



***Q: What is the socio- situation in your region?***

A: crisis like the rest of the country. People do not have money and the young cannot find jobs and if they do they are not well paid nor do they have job security because their employers are having financial troubles of their own.

***Q: What about the state of the infrastructure in your region?***

A: Roads are small but OK, however electricity and running water are a major problem. Lebanon is the only country I know that doesn't have public pay phones.

***Q: What do you think the region needs to improve?***

A: Genuine attention from the government.

***Q: Can you elaborate?***

A: Less corruption and more development. The government doesn't encourage the starting up of enterprises so they can hire people, young people.

***Q: How is tourism in your region? Is the infrastructure needed for tourism adequate?***

A: Tourism is weak; those that come are mainly people of the region living elsewhere. The infrastructure for young tourists is not available and there are sites offered for camping and there are no Youth Hotels.

***Q: What would be the impact of more tourists? And what kind of tourism is best for the region?***

A: tourism would be beneficial for the region; it will create jobs for the locals. Ecotourism would be good, summer vacationing also and Youth camping.

**3). J.E: Age 40/Hatchit/Shop owner**

***Q: What is the situation of the region?***

A: Business is bad and people just don't have money to spend. Shops are not selling enough goods. The government is busy with something else. So we are left with a situation going from bad to worse.

***Q: How is it different from the rest of Lebanon?***

A: well we are not the richest region in Lebanon and all the money of the government is going to other regions. We do not have large businesses in the region.

***Q: What is the state of infrastructure?***

A: as you can see now there is no electricity since the morning, yet the bill will come and it is becoming more and more expensive. The same applies for phone bills.

***Q: What about the roads?***

A: We don't need more roads! The government only builds roads by borrowing more and more money and doesn't invest in human beings.

***Q: What about tourism?***

A: it is all in Downtown Beirut and some traditional spots in the Mountains.

***Q: Why is it? Because of the infrastructure?***

A: that is because the government is not promoting tourism in the North. Not one campaign was made to promote Becharre for the tourists coming through the airport.

***Q: What is lacking?***

A: as I said there is no tourist policy and campaign, so no information. There are no travel agencies organizing tours for the region.

***Q: Would tourism be beneficial for the region?***



A: of course! They will stay in hotels, eat in restaurants and spend money in the shops.

*Q: What kind of tourism?*

A: all kinds of tourism. The region is an Eden for vacationers. Foreign tourists, expatriates and Lebanese from other regions can come.

**4). J.G: Age 37/ Becharre/teacher**

*Q: What is the socio- situation in the region?*

A: Not good, as you know, unemployment is rising, prices are rising and the quality of life of nearly everybody is becoming poorer. Emigration is becoming the only option for many; even that is becoming difficult! I for example have to work in Byblos, in a private school.

*Q: What is the state of infrastructure in the region?*

A: The region is not a priority for the government so it doesn't invest in the region.

*Q: What does your region need?*

A: investments and governmental support for them so the local economy can stand on its feet and prosper. The public services should be improved and their costs should be decreased.

*Q: How is the state of tourism in the region?*

A: weak, very weak, I have seen other regions, it is better there.

*Q: What is the reason?*

A: There is no promotion for tourism in the region, the government doesn't do anything. Tourist agencies are not doing anything with Becharre.

*Q: Tourist infrastructure is a reason?*

A: Yes and no, you can't ask people to build hotels and restaurants and wait for tourists, they have to know that there is plan to bring them.

*Q: What would be the impact of tourism? And what kind of tourism is beneficial for the region?*

A: Of course tourism would be beneficial for the region, it will bring money for the businesses, and jobs for the young and maybe even the government's attention, so they will improve the infrastructure. The kind of tourists which are the best are those that will spend their summers here so they can enjoy the region, not just visit it for one or two days.

**5). E.T: Age 20/ Becharre/Student**

*Q: What is the socio- situation in the region?*

A: Well bad, worse than in Beirut.

*Q: How?*

A: Well here if you do not own your shop or you are not a public servant you have to go search for a job in Greater Beirut or emigrate.

*Q: What is the state of the infrastructure?*

A: Like the state of the economy.

*Q: What does your region need?*

A: It needs industry. It needs technical schools that train people in jobs that are needed. It needs job opportunities for the students who will graduate.

*Q: What is your perception of tourism in your region?*

A: the region has a great potential that has not been developed. There is no encouragement for tourists to



come to Bcharre, all the Gulf tourists go to Beirut, Alley or Behamdoun.

*Q: What should be done to change that?*

A: Promotion, followed by small hotels in most of the towns and finally an organized plan for tourists to enjoy the nature of the region. The region should be also promoted for camping.

*Q: What kind of tourism should be encouraged?*

A: as I said the kind of tourism that enjoys what the region has to offer: the best natural sites in Lebanon.

**6). E.K: Age 50 /Becharre/ Farmer**

*Q: What is the situation in the region?*

A: not good at all, we can not earn a decent living. Farmers can't make enough money from their products and there is competition from foreign products that are cheaper. The youth all dream of emigrating.

*Q: What is the situation of the infrastructure in the region?*

A: If I tell you they were better during the war than now would you believe it?

*Q: Even the telecommunication services?*

A: They have improved but they are becoming costly now, I know a lot of people who don't have phones anymore because it is so costly.

*Q: What are the needs of your region?*

A: The government should subsidise agriculture, should stop the flow of agricultural goods from other neighbouring countries like Syria and Egypt, and should make deals with other countries for export of Lebanese products.

*Q: What about tourism?*

A: haven't seen that many foreign tourists, apart from people living abroad and coming for the summer to visit their villages and their families.

*Q: Is tourism beneficial?*

A: yes it is, it brings in money and improves business.

*Q: What kind of tourism?*

A: People coming to stay in hotels or renting houses for the summer and eating at the restaurants.

**7). G.K: age 31/ Hassroun/unemployed**

*Q: What is the socio- situation in the region?*

A: It is so good that people my age have to stay with their parents because they can't afford their own house [laughing].

*Q: What is the state of the infrastructure in the region?*

A: Very poor, haven't you seen the cuts in the electricity. Yet it is becoming more and more expensive.

*Q: What does the region need? What do people like you need?*

A: Jobs, an economy that works, hope that the country will actually improve. The government should do something to boost the economy and encourage new businesses that will hire young people. The government should help the agricultural sector.

*Q: What about tourism?*

A: They say Lebanon is a country for tourism development. Yet we haven't seen that many here. The region is



a tourism spot, yet nobody is trying to develop that potential which could help everybody; hotel owners, restaurant owners, municipalities, shops and young people looking for work.

***Q: What kind of tourism?***

A: All kinds of tourism. The region can welcome all kinds of tourists: vacationers, eco-tourists, sports inclined tourists for hiking and tourists looking for good food.

**8). KS: Age 42/ Becharre/ shop owner**

***Q: What is the socio- situation in the region?***

A: people just don't have money to spend so most shops are faring poorly. Unemployment is very high, jobs do not pay enough and all the prices are rising.

***Q: What is your evaluation of the state of the infrastructure?***

A: the roads in the region are acceptable but the problem is mainly electricity.

***Q: What does your region need?***

A: It needs many things.

***Q: Mainly?***

A: A balanced development program by the government where the money doesn't go into the pockets of the people in power. It should help the businesses and the agricultural sector because they can hire people and thus increase their spending power.

***Q: What about the tourist situation in the region?***

A: not up to the potential of the region.

***Q: What could be done?***

A: more governmental promotion. More focus on the natural sites left in Lebanon, which can be found in the region.

***Q: What kind of tourism will positively impact the region?***

A: tourists who come for the calm and the clean air and the good weather. Tourists who would like to spend time in nature also would be good. These tourists will not just pass by but will stay a while in the region, thus spending their money in the region and they can become regulars.

**9). S.K: 39/ Becharre/ engineer**

***Q: What is the socio- situation in the region?***

A: Bad because the economy is in crisis with all that it would mean in a situation like that: people lack spending money, so businesses do not make money, so they stop hiring people, who have even less money.

***Q: What is the situation with the infrastructure?***

A: bad because the mentality of the government is patching things up, no planned strategy. Everything should be modernized so it can be more efficient and then even if the prices of public services do not become more accessible at least they become worth their prices.

***Q: What does the region need?***

A: investments and in order to get them there should be an overall improvement of infrastructure, less bureaucracy and official encouragement and incentives. Then business can improve and hire people.

***Q: What about tourism? Can it have a positive impact in the region?***

A: yes it can have a positive impact since it will boost the local economy, and the service economy linked to tourism: Hotels, restaurants... but it has not yet really materialized in the region.

***Q: Why is it so?***



A: there is no planning focused on attracting tourists and there are not enough public or private investment.

**Q: What kind of tourism is needed?**

A: more than one kind of tourism: ordinary tourism/ people staying in hotels, Lebanese spending their vacations away from the heat, ecotourism for those who like camping and hiking.

**10). G.B; age 37/ Becharre/ employee**

**Q: What is the social situation in the region?**

A: crisis like the rest of the country. People do not have money and the young cannot find jobs.

**Q: What is the state of the infrastructure?**

A: not that good especially electricity that keeps getting cut.

**Q: What does the region need?**

A: needs incentives for businesses, needs more development so that downtown doesn't take everything and leaves little development for the other rural regions.

**Q: How is tourism in the region?**

A: very weak, less than people expected.

**Q: What role does infrastructure play in that?**

A: not the main role but it didn't help.

**Q: What impact will tourism will have on the region?**

A: a very positive role since the region is not an industrial one but an agricultural one; tourism is the solution for the local economy.

## Face to face interview

A face to face interview with representatives from the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR), the Ministries of Tourism (MoT), the Environment (MoE), the the Directorate of Antiquities, Municipal affairs, Urban Planning Transport, the UNESCO, the hotels and restaurants associations, some public and private investors.

Table-2 Interviewees in public Institutions and Ministries

Name / sex	Ministry/Public Institution	Occupation
Berj Hetgian	Ministry of Environment	Director General
Nada Sardouk	Ministry of Tourism	Director General
Fouad Abdel-ahad	Ministry of Public Work/ Directorate General of Urban planning	Director General
Joseph Kreidi	UNESCO	Technical Officer
Alain Cordahe	CDR	Vice president
Yves de san	UNDP	Ex resident representative
Frederick Housseini	Ministry of Culture/ Directorate General of Antiquities	Director General
Pierre El-Achkar	Hotels' Association in Lebanon	President
Naoufal Cheghrawy	Council of municipalities of Bcharre	Head of the council of municipalities of Bcharre
Joseph el-Tabech	Municipality of Hasroun	Head of the municipality of Hasroun



## Appendix 4 Rural livelihood capitals

*a-Natural or Physical capital* comprises land, water, trees, animals as well as biological resources<sup>88</sup>, and can be enhanced when brought under human control, by improving its productivity through the development of new farming systems or some other type of resource management<sup>89</sup>. These should be managed in an efficient and a well-planned policy that ensures their renewal and effectiveness<sup>90</sup>. However, natural resources also include *non-renewable resources*<sup>91</sup>.

*b-Capital Stock* incorporates assets that are brought into existence by production processes, for example, tools, machines, and land improvements like terraces or irrigation canals, agricultural or local and national roads, and commercial and industrial buildings<sup>92</sup>. It also includes produced goods, which are used to generate income as contrasted against consumer goods. The same element can be used for both purposes with some exceptions. A simple example is the seasonal renting of some rooms in a cottage where a non-productive asset becomes productive (Moser, 1998).

*c-Human capital* is defined as the labour available to the household (Carney, 1998). Its main components are education, skills and health. It is affected by the population rate, gender and age. Human capital is increased by investment in education and training, as well as by skills acquired through the pursuing of one or more occupations. Labour as an asset is also made more effective by being free of illness or debilitating health problems. Households as groupings are not static in composition<sup>93</sup>. One of the major means of raising the human capital is through the development of good public education and health services.

*d-Financial capital* refers to the assets, savings, loans and other financial credits that a household has access to (Coleman, 1990; Putnam *et al.*, 1993). Neither money nor loans are directly productive forms of capital. They owe their role to their convertibility into other forms of capital. In many societies, the absence of financial

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<sup>88</sup>Natural resources can be broadly classified in two types. a)- *Forest products* used as medicinal plants, wild fruits, and vegetables, and b)- *Farm Products* organized by human agencies to produce managed outputs as in pastoral and farming systems. They also fall under two categories the *Renewable* and the *Non-Renewable* natural resources. The *Renewable resources* are of major importance in the rural development and should be well preserved to assure sustainability.

<sup>89</sup> Main examples are fishery stocks and farming, trees that are used for fruits and the dead branches for firewood and wood charcoal, medical plants, wild fruits and vegetables as well as the preservation of water levels in underground aquifers and water catchment areas (Akar *et al.*, 1993).

<sup>90</sup> The proper usage of water for drinking and irrigation through the appropriate installation of infrastructure "canals, pipes, etc" as well as the safeguarding and maintenance of all types of trees.

<sup>91</sup>These resources include rocks, soil, metals, ores and oil stocks can be permanently or temporarily depleted depending on the rate of extraction.

<sup>92</sup>Stock assets (infra-structure) such as roads, electricity and telephone lines play an important role in transferring information between rural centers and remote settlements, and thus play a major role in the livelihood diversification. Also a good piped water and sewage networking system can save labor time and avoid illness and disease.

<sup>93</sup>The human capital composition changes constantly due to internal demographic reasons (birth, death, marriage, migration, aging), and or deliberate restructuring to meet unexpected events (e.g. divorce). Modern theories of growth emphasize on the significant role of rising human capital in under planning rapid and sustainable growth.



markets or distrust of such financial institutions results in savings being held in other forms<sup>94</sup> (Swift, 1989).

*e-Social capital* is defined by Moser, (1998) as the “reciprocity within communities and between households based on trust deriving from social ties”. Such a definition emphasizes on localized reciprocity within communities<sup>95</sup>. It also directs the attention toward personal or family networks typically the personalized networks of community organizations such as co-operatives, farmer associations, village committees and so on, as well as its efficacy with respect to the political, social and economic changes (Harriss, 1997). There are also the community divisions with its insider and outsider policy, which sometimes results in social exclusion of particular individuals or groups within rural communities. This all has to do with the adaptability of a society to accept newcomers. A great deal of community reciprocity is hidden. It can be discovered by a long time consuming anthropological research or through serious livelihood crisis.

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<sup>94</sup>In rural mountains, the keeping of livestock often plays a critical role as a store of wealth and as a buffer against bad times. While cattle and goats are considered as a lesser form of liquid or savings than a cash deposit they still possess the same attribute when sold. This can also apply to gold, jewelry, and food stocks as an alternative means of holding.

<sup>95</sup>Community is mainly defined as a group of individuals living in close proximity to each other and/or social groups, grassroots entrepreneurs, or associations that have some common social, cultural and historical needs (De Silva 2002).



## **Appendix 5 IUCN's Eleven Classifications for Natural Areas**

The IUCN (International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) has developed eleven categories for the classification of natural areas:

### ***Category I - Scientific Research/Strict Nature Reserve***

Areas with some outstanding ecosystem features and /or species of flora and fauna of national scientific importance, representative of particular natural areas, fragile life forms or ecosystems, important biological or geological diversity, or area of particular importance to the conservation of genetic resources. Concern is for continuance of natural processes and strict control of human interference.

### ***Category II - National Parks***

A relatively large area where one or several ecosystems are not materially altered by human use, the highest component government authority has taken steps to prevent or control such alterations, and visitors are allowed to enter, under special conditions for inspiration, educative, cultural, and recreation use.

### ***Category III - Natural Monument/Natural landmark***

Area normally contains one or more specific natural features of outstanding national significance, which because of uniqueness or rarity should be protected. Ideally little or no sign of human activity is to be present.

### ***Category IV - Nature conservation Reserve/Management Nature Reserve /Wildlife Sanctuary***

A variety of areas fall into this category. Although each has as its primary purpose the protection of nature. The production of harvestable renewable and non-renewable resources may play a secondary role in management. Habitat manipulation may be required to provide optimum conditions for species, communities, or features of special interest.

### ***Category V - Protected landscape or seascape***

This is a broad category of landscape which embraces a wide variety of semi-natural and cultural landscapes within various nations. There are two types of areas that can be classified, those where landscape possess special aesthetic qualities resulting from human-land interaction and those that are primarily natural areas managed intensively for recreational and tourist use.

### ***Category VI - Resource Reserve***

These areas are normally extensive, relatively isolated, and lightly inhabited and are under considerable pressure for colonization and greater exploration. Often they are not well understood in natural, land-use, or cultural terms. Maintenance of existing conditions is required to allow for studies of potential uses and their effects as a basis for decisions.

### ***Category VII - Natural Biotic Area/Anthropological Reserve***

These natural areas have no significant influence from the technology of modern humans and have not been absorbed by the traditional ways of life of inhabitants. Management is oriented to maintenance of habitat for traditional societies.

### ***Category VIII - Multiple Use Management Area/Managed Resource Area***

These are large areas that are suitable for the production of wood and marine products and are rich with water, pasture, and wildlife. They have outdoor recreation potential, and may contain nationally unique or exceptional natural features. Planning and management on a sustainable-yield basis with protection can be done through zoning or other means.

### ***Category IX - Biosphere Reserve***

These intended to conserve representative natural areas throughout the world through the creation of global and national networks of reserves. They include representative natural biomes, or communities, species of unique interest, examples of harmonious landscapes resulting from traditional uses, and modified or degraded landscapes capable of restoration to more natural conditions. Biosphere reserves provide benchmarks for monitoring environmental change and areas for science, education, and training



***Category X - World Heritage Site***

In this category the purpose is to protect natural and cultural features that are considered to be world heritage quality. Examples can include outstanding illustrations of the major stages of earth's evolutionary history, habitats where population of rare endangered species of plants and animals still survive, and also outstanding archaeological or architectural sites. Stress on maintenance of heritage values for worldwide public enlightenment, and to provide for research and environmental monitoring.

***Category XI \_ Wetlands of International Importance (Ramsar)***

Marshes, swamps, and other wetlands of value for flood control, nutrient production, wildlife habitat, and related purposes. Management procedures designed to prevent destruction and deterioration through national agreement to an international convention known as Ramsar after a site in Iran where the convention was initially agreed to by a number of founding countries. Source: Nelson 1991



Appendix 6 Criteria for site management and sustainable tourism development

A-FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF A SITE THE FOLLOWING COMPONENTS AND THEIR RELATED ELEMENTS SHOULD BE VERIFIED:

Components	Elements
1-Physical assets such as:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Climate, wildlife, natural habitat, renewable and non-renewable natural resources, and biodiversity including endangered species of fauna and the flora.</li><li>-Natural history, wetlands, wildlife reserves, salt and fresh water features, landscape, stepped terraces, scenery, and land-use</li></ul>
2-Socio-cultural assets such as:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Local history</li><li>-Cultural heritage (religious temples, caves, and special symbolic elements ex. The Cedars of Lebanon)</li><li>-Communities, manifestations and local practice, which are natural or non-natural resources based (agricultural, religious and rural festivals as well as fishing, hunting, cultivating, farming, and art crafts).</li></ul>
3-Economic assets such as:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Human capital, industrial, commercial and recreational facilities (Banks, companies, factories, farms, universities, private clubs, stadiums)</li><li>-Labour and credit market response, financial capital</li><li>-Currency leakage (percentage of loss from total tourism revenues), source of revenue to the indigenous people. Total activity generated by tourism.</li><li>-Marketing</li></ul>
4-Administrative status and strategies such as:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Government policy rules, regulations and land-use planning</li><li>-Community development and participation in the decision-making, visitors' trips management, natural resource management, agricultural intensifications</li><li>-Livelihood diversification and adaptability: On-farm and off-farm activities, seasonality migration, risk reduction</li></ul>
5-Ethics and moral conditions that are mainly:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-The ethical approach and responsible acts on the local, national, and strangers scale.</li><li>-The degree of awareness and understanding of the area's natural systems.</li></ul>
6-Services that are represented by:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Accommodations, entertainment facilities, transportation, infrastructure, marketing and tour-operators.</li></ul>
7-Local satisfaction which is based on:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-The level of satisfaction by the locals (survey-based)</li></ul>
8-Attractiveness which covers:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Qualitative measures of those site variables that make it attractive to tourism and can change overtime.</li><li>-Ex. Outdoor nature activities and sports, amusement and theme parks, nightlife and entertainment, gambling, shopping, live theatre and musicals and predictable weather.</li></ul>
9-The existence of a planning process which is related to:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-The existence of organized regional plan or plans for the tourist's destination region (including tourism component)</li></ul>

B-FOR THE RATING OF THE SITE'S "ECOSYSTEM" THE FOLLOWING RELATED INDICATORS MUST BE EVALUATED.

Ecosystem type	Sample of indicator
1-For the coastal zones	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Degradation (percentage of beach degradation, eroded)</li><li>-Use intensity (persons per meter of accessible beach)</li><li>-Water quality (faecal, coli form and heavy metals counts)</li></ul>
2-For the mountain regions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Erosion (percentage of surface area eroded)</li><li>-Biodiversity (key species counts)</li><li>Access to key sites (hours' wait)</li></ul>
3-For the wildlife parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Species health (reproductive success, species diversity)</li><li>-Use intensity (ratio visitors to game)</li><li>-Encroachment (percentage of park affected by unauthorized activity)</li></ul>
4-For the ecologically unique sites	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Ecosystem degradation (number and mix of species, percentage area with change in cover)</li><li>-Stress on site (number of operators using site)</li><li>-Number of tourists that site see key species (percentage)</li></ul>
5-For critical ecosystems	Number of rare or endangered species

C-FOR THE CULTURAL SITE'S STATUS THE FOLLOWING INDICATORS MUST BE REVIEWED.

1-Cultural sites (built)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Site degradation (restoration/repair status and repair cost)</li><li>-Structure degradation (precipitation acidity, air pollution counts)</li></ul>
2-Cultural sites (traditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Potential social stress (ratio average income of tourists/locals)</li><li>In season sites (percentage of vendors open year round)</li><li>-Antagonism (reported incidents between locals and tourists)/ degree of respect for host culture and cultural traditions.</li><li>-Safety (crime levels)</li></ul>



**D-FOR THE SUSTAINABILITY OF A SITE THE FOLLOWING INDICATORS SHOULD BE ADOPTED.**

Indicator	Description and category
1-Site protection and classification that is based on:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-The IUCN (International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) located in Geneva has developed eleven categories for the classification and protection of natural areas. They are as follows:</li> <li>-Category I - Strict Nature Reserve/Wilderness area: protected area managed mainly for science of wilderness protection</li> <li>-Category II - National Parks: protected area managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation</li> <li>-Category III - Natural Monument: protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features</li> <li>-Category IV - Habitat/Specie Management Area: Management Nature Reserve /Wildlife Sanctuary</li> <li>-Category V - Protected Landscape or Seascape: Protected areas managed mainly for landscape/seascape protection and recreation.</li> <li>-Category VI – Managed Resource Protected Area: protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystem. Natural Biotic Area - Anthropological Reserve - Biosphere Reserve - World Heritage Site - Wetlands of International Importance (Ramsar)</li> </ul>
2-Stress level which consists of:	-The tourists number visiting the site (per annum/peak month)
3- Intensity of use that is related to:	-The intensity of use in peak period (person /hectare)
4-Social impact that is based on:	-The ratio of tourists to locals (peak period and over time)
5-Development control in relation to:	-The existence of environmental review procedure or formal controls over development of site and use densities (controlling the number of permits for facilities)
6-Urban environments and services' quality -Waste management -Solid waste -Infrastructure capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment.</li> <li>-Waste counts (amounts of rubbish, costs)</li> <li>Pollution (air pollution count)</li> <li>-Additional indicators may include structural limits of other infrastructure capacity on site, such as water supply)</li> </ul>

**E-FOR SUSTAINABLE ECOTOURISM SITE DEVELOPMENT THE FOLLOWING RECOMMENDATIONS SHOULD BE IMPLEMENTED.**

1-Using resources Sustainably	-Conservation and sustainable use of resources:-natural, social and cultural-is crucial and makes long-term business sense.
2-Reducing Over-consumption and Waste	-This reduction avoids the cost of restoring long-term environmental damage and contributes to the quality of tourism.
3-Maintaining Diversity	-Maintaining and promoting natural, social and cultural diversity is essential for long-term sustainable tourism, and creates a resilient base for the industry
4-Integrating Tourism into the Planning	-Tourism development which is integrated into a national and local strategic planning framework, and which undertakes EIA's increases the long-term viability of tourism
5-Supporting Local Economies	-Tourism that supports a wide range of local activities, and which takes environmental costs/values into account, both protects those economies and avoids environmental damage.
6-Involving Local Communities	-The full involvement of local communities in the tourism sector not only benefits them and the environment in general but also improves the quality of the tourism experience.
7-Consulting Stakeholders and the Public	-Consultation between the tourism industry and local communities, organizations and institutions is essential if they are to work alongside each other and resolve potential conflicts of interest.
8-Training Staff	-Staff training, which integrates sustainable tourism into work practices, along with recruitment of local personnel at all levels, improves the quality of the tourism product.
9-Marketing Tourism Responsibly	-Marketing that provides tourists with full and responsible information increases respect for the natural, social and cultural environments of destination areas and enhances customer satisfaction.
10-Undertaking Research	-Ongoing research and monitoring by the industry using effective data collection and analysis is essential in solving problems and bringing benefits to destinations, the industry and consumers.



## F-GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Components	Guidelines and recommendations
1-Carrying capacity and site stress which is based on:	-Set composite early warning measures concerning the key factors that are affecting the ability of the site to perform properly (natural/cultural attributes due to visitors and other sectors' cumulative stress)
2-Urban social security that:	- Implement safety factors, control violations of the law and try to reduce the crime numbers.
3-Planning and Regulation that:	-Should have national support and should meet ecological, social, and carrying capacities. -Should incorporate appropriate pricing and revenue policies -Should incorporate a holistic approach that must stress on the integration, interest and well-being of the community. -Should take into account the benefits and welfare of the present and future generations. -Planning between the public and the private sectors should be encouraged -The local authorities and communities concerned should act in favour of maintaining the species and the habitat and preserving the abused natural resources through the non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and in restricting possible future massive uncontrolled development. -Community should be involved in the critical development/strategy decisions.
4-Accommodations and local participation that:	-Should not overwhelm the community. -Benefits (jobs, expenditures) are more evenly distributed. -Offer less competition with homes and businesses for the use of infrastructure. Presents a large percentage of revenues to local areas. -Offers greater opportunity for local entrepreneurs to participate in the tourism sector.
5-Attractions and image enhancement that:	-Promote and enhance authenticity and uniqueness of the community. -Have an educational and a self-fulfilment role. -Offer benefit to the Locals even if tourists are not present.
6-Market in which:	-Tourists should not overwhelm locals in numbers; stress is avoided. -'Drought/deluge' cycles should be avoided, and equilibrium is fostered. -A more desirable visitor type should be targeted.
7- Development where:	- Diversity should be promoted to avoid single-sector dependence. -Interaction between the sectors should be reinforced. -Net revenues should rise and money would circulate within the community. -More jobs and activity will be generated.
8-General recommendations:	-Avoid peak demand and burden by straightening the demand curve -Reducing the space consumption that is related to tourism -Preservation of natural landscape -Cooperation with other industries, in particular agriculture and forestry -Professionalism within the industry Changing the tourists behaviour

Source: Consulting and Audit Canada, 1995; Manning, 1996a; Tourism Concern, 1992; WTO, 1994a, 1996c

## Principles for a sustainable tourism development

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), 1995 has adopted principles for a sustainable tourism development. Such guidelines were mainly based on the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development Cooperation. They were stated as follows:

- Travel and tourism should assist people in leading healthy and productive lives in harmony with nature. It should contribute to the conservation, protection and restoration of the earth's ecosystem and should be based upon sustainable patterns of production and consumption.
- Travel and tourism, peace development and environmental protection are interdependent.
- Nations should cooperate to promote an open system, in which international trade and travel services can take place on a sustainable base.
- Environmental protection should constitute an integral part of trade, travel and other tourism development process.



- Tourism development issues should be handled with the participation of concerned citizens, with planning decisions being adopted at local level.
- Nations shall warn one another of natural disasters that could affect tourists or tourism areas.
- Travel and tourism should use its capacity to create employment for women and indigenous peoples to the fullest extent.
- Tourism development should recognize and support the identity, culture and interests of indigenous people.
- International laws protecting the environment should be respected by the travel and tourism industry WTTC/WTO (1995).

The Tourism Industry Association of Canada (1995) in collaboration with other economic and environmental agencies created a document that demonstrates the commitment and responsibility to protect the environment through the cooperation with other sectors and governments at all levels. Their *sustainable tourism guidelines* were developed for the tourism industry, industry associations, accommodations, food services, tour operators, and Ministry of tourism. Each of these sections contained appropriate guidelines that deal with: *Policy and planning; tourism experience; host community; development; natural, cultural, and historic resources; conservation of natural resources; environmental protection; marketing; research, education and public awareness; and industry cooperation.*

The Federation of Nature and National Parks of Europe (1993) has done a comprehensive publication, which covered sustainable tourism in Europe's nature and natural Parks. It provides a good insight into the challenge of implementing sustainability in that part of the world. Many of the protected areas in Europe are situated in rural working neighbourhoods of the countries such as in England, Wales, Luxembourg and France. It must compete with different pressures as compared with some of the larger and less densely populated areas surrounding the protected areas such as in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the United States.

However Europe also contains some large national parks and biosphere reserves that are maintained accordingly. In both rural and wilderness environment policy, makers and practitioners are charged with the task of implementing sustainable tourism in these varied settings. The European national parks document recognizes that people must be able to improve the quality of their lives, maintain jobs, improve their economy, enjoy their cultures and promote harmony between cultures. These must be accomplished while developing environmental education, political support for the environment, and the protection of heritage values through recuperative projects and direct practical help. While indicators are variables that are identified to measure and monitor tourism impacts, the *codes of ethics or conduct* are lists designated to elicit a change in behaviour from particular stakeholder groups. It is a form of compliance for acceptable behaviour in a tourism setting. A good example of such form of education is the Beyond the Green Horizon paper on sustainable tourism (Tourism Concern, 1992).



The Tourism Concern views sustainable tourism as a “tourism and associated infrastructures” that, both now and in the future operate within natural capacities for:

- The regeneration and future production of natural resources;
- Recognition of the contribution that the local people and communities, customs and lifestyle, make to the tourism experience;
- Accept that the local people have an equitable share in the benefits of tourism;
- Incorporate the wishes of local people and communities in the host area.

McKercher, (1993a) feels that tourism is vulnerable to losing sustainability for four main reasons. *Firstly*, tourism is not recognised as a natural resource-dependent industry. *Secondly*, the tourism industry is invisible, especially in urban areas. *Thirdly*, tourism is electorally weak, with little support in government. *Fourthly*, there is a distinct lack of leadership in driving the industry. Such grounds render tourism vulnerable to attacks from other landowners. Burr (1995) illustrates that if sustainable tourism is to occur at all, the people of the rural tourism communities should cooperate and work together to make it happen. This process should start at a local level and perhaps be loosely shaped by broader national and international policy. On the other hand Laarman and Gregersen (1994), feel that a sustainable nature tourism policy must include the following three areas:

- National support and advanced planning;
- Appropriate pricing and revenue policies;
- Local participation and benefits.



**Appendix 7 Classifications, Components and indicators for evaluating the tourist**

Components	Classifications
1-Tourists (in a group or individual) that are of one or more persons can be classified as follows:	<i>1-Hard-core</i> nature tourists: scientific researchers or members of tours specially designated for education, improvement of the environment and similar purposes. <i>2-Dedicated</i> nature tourists: people who take trips specially to see protected areas and who want to understand local natural and cultural history <i>3-Mainstream</i> nature tourists: people who visit the Amazon, the Rwanda gorilla park, or other destination primarily to take an unusual trip <i>4-Casual</i> nature tourists: people who experience nature incidentally as part of broader trip.
1.1-Eco-tourists' approach is:	<i>1-Do-it yourself:</i> It composes the majority of the three categories and has the flexibility and mobility in terms of accommodations, experience, sites and settings. <i>2- On tours:</i> It requires a well-organised tour, and travel to exotic destinations (e.g. Antarctica). <i>3-Academic or scientific:</i> It is mainly involved in scientific research of an organisation or individual; often stay in the same region for extensive periods of time, and are willing to endure harsher site conditions than other eco-tourists.
1.2-Eco-tourists' activities are as follows:	-Education, recreation, adventure and culture travel as well as participation and interaction with the surrounding.
1.3-The degree of satisfaction and behaviour and visitor attitude are based on the following indicators:	1-Level of satisfaction by visitors (survey-based) in terms of education, recreation, enjoyment, and/or admiration. 2-Spirit of appreciation, participation, and sensitivity. 3-Sense of involvement of the visitors to the system.

Fennell and Smale, (1992); Kusler (1991); Lindberg (1991)



**Appendix 8 WTO survey on 300 holiday visitors to France**

A survey was done by the WTO on 300 nature oriented holiday visitors to France. Its aim was to identify the major activities to which the nature tourists would devote most of their time.

According to the French tour operators and some 300 visitors, the selections of ecotourism sites are based on the following considerations:

- The discovery of landscape and protected natural areas and habitat (parks and reserves) as well as direct contact with nature;
- The discovery of civilizations, culture, cultural heritage and gastronomic traditions;
- The observation of wildlife; and
- The opportunity to play a part in some sporting activities.

Tourists Activities Performed	
Activities performed	%
Visit to cultural sites and monuments	20.4
Walking, trekking (on foot and on horseback)	19.5
Participating in local festivals	11.9
Visiting National Parks and Protected Areas	10.85
Observation of fauna	9.3
Water sports	7.3
Photo safari	6.6
Other nature sports	6.2
Hunting, fishing	2.2
Climbing	1.4
Oithology	1.2
Botanical or geological trips	1.2
Village stays	1.0
Eco-volunteer work	0.7
Scientific research	0.4
Total	100

Source: Survey of visitors (WTO 2002)

The means of delivery of information to tourists was as follows:

Means of Information Promotion	
Specific statement in the general brochure	76%
Word of mouth	60%
Fairs and exhibitions	48%
Internet site	44%
Accompanying guides	44%
Regular journal	36%
Designated mailing	36%
Adds in specialized magazines	36%
Press articles	32%
Specialized associations and NGOs	24%

Source: Survey of visitors (WTO 2002)



## Appendix 9 Major biological characteristics of the Cévennes National Park

The park is rich with fauna, mainly the tawny and black vultures, beavers, stags, roe deer, mouflon, grouse, crayfish, otters, black woodpecker, owls, vultures, and frogs and 2,250 species of flora (33 protected and 48 indigenous) that varies in type from polar to tropical (see Appendix 2). Such species are favoured by the diversity of the climates (Oceanic, Continental and Mediterranean), the chemical composition of the soil (granite, limestone or schist) and the range of altitudes in the protected zone which varies from 378 to 1,699 metres. The range of vegetation is extreme: the sub-alpine meadows of mount Lozère which are home to some species typical of the polar circle, while the warm rocky sheltered valleys of the Mediterranean side of the Park are home to species found in the middle of the sub-tropics. This vegetation offers a striking contrast from the Holme Oak found in the hot and dry climate of the lowlands, to the natural beech groves and pinewoods in the higher altitudes (cold and humid climate). Of the 400 protected species of French flora, there exist 33 in the National Park (*Lilium martagon*, *Adonis vernalis*, orchids...). The Park specialises in the conservation of 48 indigenous species, and another hundred rare or threatened plants. A large number of the latter can only exist in open lands (meadows, moors, prairies, pathways), which are maintained by cattle grazing. In the upper mountains (1,500 to 1,700 metres) of mount Lozère there are the sub-alpine meadows, the sphagnum peat bogs, and the marshes, with plants like water clover and the famous *Drosera* sp. (the carnivorous plant sundew). The forest covers more than 1,500 km<sup>2</sup> of the protected core and Peripheral Zone, of which half are broadleaf trees & half evergreen. Two-third of the plants are indigenous (originating from this region) and one-third are evergreens introduced to the area (CNP, 2000).

The forest occupies around 80% of the core zone (about 72,716 hectares): Holme Oak up to 500 metres, deciduous woodland and chestnut trees between 500 and 900 metres and beech woodland between 900 and 1,500 metres. The large forest of the commune of the Aigoual was the work of the local farmers at the end of the 19th Century. The chestnut trees of the Cévennes (40,000 hectares), cultivated for a thousand years, make up the typical landscape. The preservation of the last natural beech and pine woodlands found on the northern slopes of Mont Lozère play an important role in forestry management for the Park. Up to the end of the 19th Century, the density of the farming population reduced the number of large wild animal species but by prohibiting intensive agriculture and chemical treatments, the Cévennes National Park has constituted a natural refuge for small animals, including insects. The decrease in the land area under cultivation and the increase in moorland and forest have recreated favourable conditions for larger animals. The growth of a number of species threatens the equilibrium of the forest and the damage caused by wild boars to certain agricultural land makes it necessary to regulate their growth by hunting. There are 2,410 species of Fauna found today in the Park's (Core & Peripheral Zone and the Cévennes biosphere reserve), including 45% of the vertebrates found in France. There are 89 species of mammals, 208 species of bird (135 which nest here), 17 species of reptiles, 18 species of amphibians, 24 species of fish, 1,824 species of insect (846 are beetles), 53 species of spider, 12 species of shellfish, 106 species of gastropods, 26 species of nematodes, and so on. There is a wide range of mammals that varies from the tiny but amazing world of insects to the more spectacular one of the vertebrates, and where one can find almost half the species found in France (and 80% of all the continental mammals). For more precise information, one can consult the detailed inventory of park fauna (finalised in 1995) in the Information Centres.



## Appendix 10 Administrative structure for the Cévennes National Park

### 1-The administrative council and the permanent commission

The minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development (previously Minister of Environment) nominates the members of the administrative council for a period of five years. This council is composed of (52 people): elected locals, scientists, administration's representatives, and a variety of qualified people. The mandate of the members is five years and can be renewed. The administrative council in its turn designates from its members and after each renewal a president and two vice presidents who are subject to the approval of the minister of Ecology and Sustainable development. The administrative council names the *permanent commission* which incorporates ten members: three civil servants, five general advisers or mayors and two personalities belonging to categories A, B of the article 35 and representatives of the local population and other qualified personnel. The commission is composed of ten members. It is to be noted that the categories A and B are the two top categories of the civil service employees in the French public administrations. This commission in return elects a president and a vice president. The appointment is subject to the approval of the minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development (MESD) (Previously Ministry of Environment). The prefect of the department "Languedoc Roussillon", the government's commissioner, the director of the institution and the financial auditor of the government assist in the permanent commission with a consultative vote.

The administrative council defines the planning principles, the management and the regulations of the park which the director should observe. It develops a management programme for the park for a period of five years. The programme should indicate the objectives that must be reached, and the necessary means to achieve them. It should mention the projects that will improve the status of the establishment, and the different categories of work that could be implemented by other individuals that are not part of the establishment. The administrative council approves the functioning and organisation of the establishment. It votes the budget and comments on administrative matters such as accounting, as well as on any matters related to the park. It comments on the annual report of activities that is developed by the director of the park, and controls the park's accounting. Based on a proposition from the administrative council the minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development creates a scientific committee that is composed of selected personalities that are chosen based on competence and are charged with giving the establishment technical opinions and undertakes studies that are given to it. The administrative council also nominates specialised commissions in the fields of agriculture, pisciculture, architecture and sites in order to get their opinion in such fields. It sets the programme for the implementation and improvement of the social, economic and cultural aspects in the peripheral zone. The administration council meets twice a year to vote for the budget and the political orientation. It also defines a management plan valid for five years.

The Minister of Ecology and Sustainable Development implements the administrative and technical control of the establishment. He can delegate on this matter, giving full powers to a general engineer from his ministry. To facilitate the control process the director of the establishment has to presents all the documents and information that will allow verification of the planning and the management of the park. The management body is mainly in charge of establishing and putting to work the basic principles for the protection and management of the cultural and natural entity of the site. The management objectives are based on: *First*, conservation of the ecological quality such as biodiversity, and landscape; *Second*, protection and promotion of rich rural cultural and historical heritage; *Third*, facilitation and control of short and long-term development. The functions of the president and the members of administrative council and the permanent commission are free of charge. Meanwhile, and during the six months period that precedes each meeting, the permanent commission and the seven specialized scientific committees (the water and fishing commission, the cynegetic commission, the culture and education commission, the tourism and information commission, the site planning commission, etc.) assure and follow up on the management in the field in coordination with the director of the Park.



## 2-The directorate

The directorate is composed of a director and an assistant director.

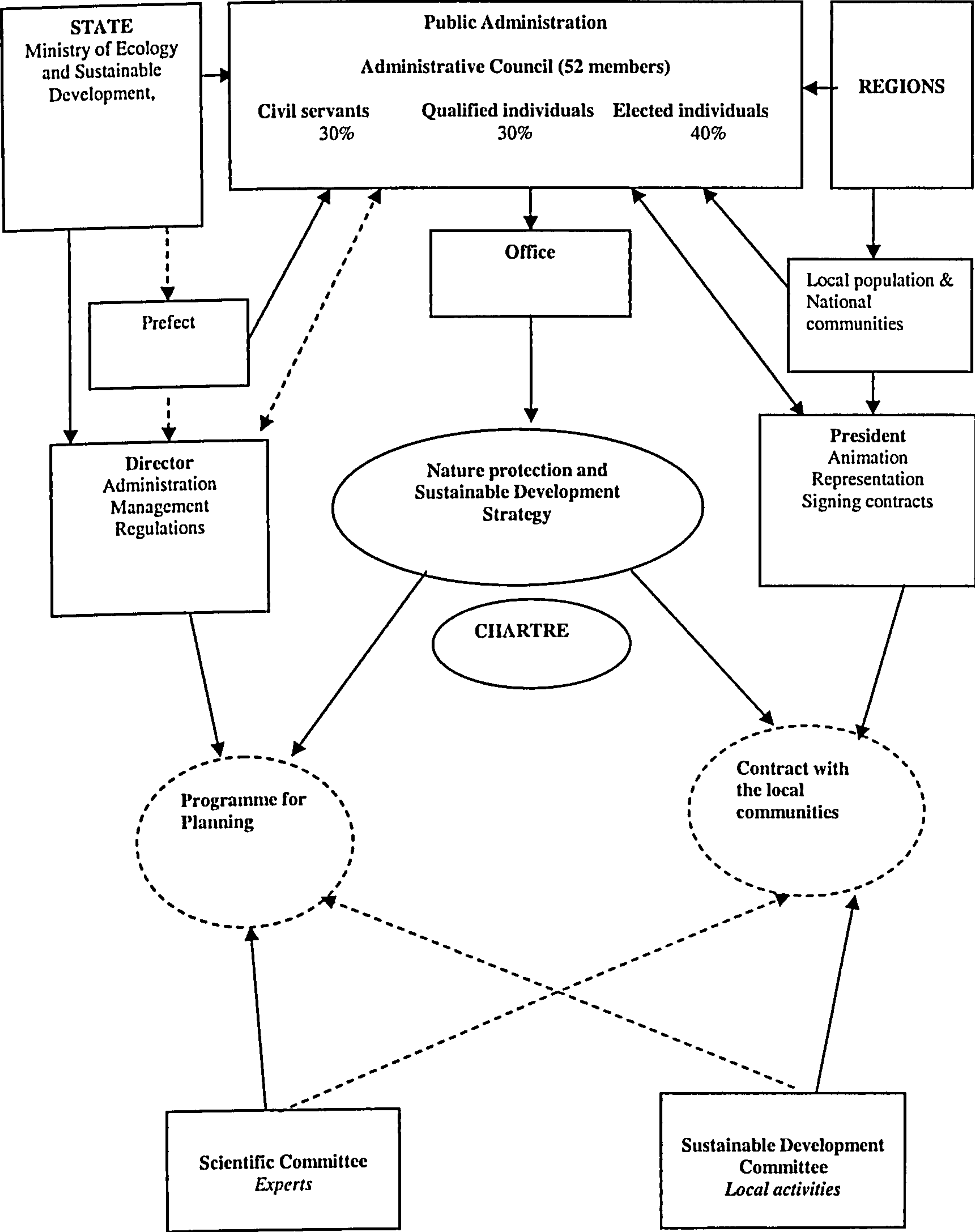
The president nominates the director and his vice president. The director exercises the powers that are given to him by the administrative council and the decrees and articles. He organises the establishment as per the decrees, manage and recruits members and employees for the establishment and has the sole authority over his employees. The vice-director who will be nominated based on the same conditions as that of the director can assist him and can replace him in his absence. At the interior of the park the director of the establishment has the sole powers on his territory but he has to consult the mayors of the park's communes and the prefect of the Languedoc Roussillon's department with respect to certain major matters. The prefect has the power to cancel a decision issued by the director based on valid requests from the mayors or other public or private entities.

## 3-The departments and specialists

In the park there are five major departments which are: *First*, a scientific and a planning department composed of a GIS specialist, a network administrator, a Botanist, and two zoologists. *Second*, protection services and physical planning department composed of an architect, a building technologist, a draftsman, an engineer, a person in charge of the hunting activities, a tourism activities specialist. *Third*, a communication and mass media department that incorporates service and sector specialists (external relations, publication, animation, public hosting, and pedagogy). *Fourth*, a general administration and accounting department that is composed of an administrative officer, printing facilities, and an accountant. *Fifth*, a field implementation department that has 4 antennas i.e. (regions) which are 1)-the mount-Lozère, 2)-the Cévennes 3)-the Aigoual and the 4)-Causse-Gorges on which there are 32 monitor-guard and sectors' leaders. These employees work in the field and report to the Park administration.



Administrative structure of the Parc National des Cévennes



Source: CNP, 2000



## Appendix 11 Major site services and activities at the Cévennes National Park

### 1-Monitoring and Guarding

Stationed in each sector and in direct contact with the residents, the monitors and guards should know their sectors well and be able to make the user respect the different aspects of regulations that are related to them. In the fields of environment and landscape management the monitor and guard: a)-Coordinate the studies and plans related to the development and the environment activities; b)-Arrange with the farmers on maintenance of the footpaths and fields; study the possibility of developing helpful methods for the raising of certain classified species. c)-Carry out the technical follow-ups on the population of the Cervidae and the reintroduced species; d)-Verify the damage attributed to the fauna, and help the farmers preserve their culture; e)-Play an important part in the prevention and the repression of poaching and in the illegal and irregular hunting practices; and f)-Control the conformity of the authorized architectural works and stop the illegal ones (construction, new roads, unauthorized forests' cutting and others).

In the cultural field the guards: a)-Intervene in the scholastic, vacation, and youth activities; b)- Be available to discuss and debate matters that touch on the environment, the respect of nature, and the history of the local people; c)-Organize information workshops; d)-Offer material help for locally based projects; e)-Participate in the associations' activities. In the information and hosting fields guards should: a)-Implement a variety of maintenance, markings, lightings and signalization jobs; b)-Participate in the animations (projections, expositions), and accompany the groups on field trips; c)-Informs when gatherings take place about the park's objectives and share his knowledge of the region with the visitors; d)-Prevents, informs, and suppresses the polluters and the violators of all kinds. In certain specific operations the field monitors and guards should follow up on: a)-Reintroduction of certain species; b)-Multiple operations done with a variety of organizations; c)-Gather scientific information; d)-Take a census for the pisciculture population; e)- Implement some genetic conservation operation; f)-Follow up on the acidity of rain; g)-Fight against the spruce parasites; h)-Collect meteorological, archaeological and ethnological information; i)-Participate in the mountains' first aid and in the fight against forest fires.

### 2-Applied sciences research and management

Applied science and research is part of an integrated plan that is based on ecological, economic and socio-cultural data collection and verification and research studies. It is done through ecological units that have been developed and are located at Mount Lozère. Other major researches and experimentations on the ecosystem catchments areas have also been done. Also development of documentation centres and archives and scientific annals for the Cévennes National park as a whole have been established. With respect to management of the site a series of plans in the fields of architecture, agriculture, ecology and tourism have been developed as follows: *First*, architecture and landscape management plans that are based on: a)-Valuing, maintaining and preserving the natural, architectural and cultural heritage elements; b)-Restoration and construction of residential and agricultural buildings; *Second*, multi agricultural, tourism and ecological activities and management plans that are based on: a)-The modernization of traditional agricultural activities; b)-The diversification of the park's activities, mainly in the participation in tourism hosting operations, preservation of the bovine and ovine stock and landscape ecological management; *Third*, the improvement of the working and living conditions.

These plans, activities and operations are implemented through: *1-Environmental and financial planning operations* for the achievement of a better economic and profitable use of the natural resources via agricultural land improvement, government loans for agriculture in the mountain's areas of the park, renovation of farm buildings, purchasing of land by the inter-ministerial committee for the cooperative of cattle breeders and others. A major difficulty in this area arises from the disproportion between the cost of the land and the farmers' revenue; *2-Ecological and cultural utility action plan* (mainly contracts with farmers), which involves cleaning and maintaining footpaths, groups' companionship, renovation and restoration of buildings and architectural elements such as mills, warehouses, churches etc. This work also includes archaeological research and actions related to the conservation of the fauna, and flora as well as cleaning and collection of waste. All local authorities including the communities can be involved in such process; *3-Rural lodging, youth hostels, hotels, motels and other types of tourism facilities' management and maintenance plan*. The purpose of such process is to help safeguarding, and valuing the architectural cultural heritage. It also includes the affiliation with the Panda lodging label; *4-*



*Residential and commercial private and public rural buildings' improvement action plan*, which aims at raising the standard of living; *5-Space management functions plan* that focuses mainly on the natural landscape. This major capital asset is composed of natural landscape (geological formations and spontaneous vegetation) and a humanized natural landscape (agriculture, forestry, vernacular architecture). It also involves an inventory of zones of ecological, fauna, and flora potential as well as on the evaluation of the agricultural policy and environment management. Such planning is done by "the regional and environmental planning institute", which is taking charge of managing the site; *6-Forestry management plan* that includes ecological natural heritage, biological and geological specificity of the region as well as a zoning process; *7-Eco-museums development* with local partnership; *8-Creation of permanent and seasonal hosting information centres*; and *9-An Offer of Nature festival activities and pedagogic services* all summer long.



## Appendix 12 Cévennes National Park management programme 2000-2006

The end of 1998 was the start of the program 2000-2006 for the management of the Park. It was based on an experimental methodology developed by the “*ATEN*” *Atelier Technique des Espaces Naturelles* (ATEN, 2001). This programme has achieved the approval of the local communities, the NGOs, the employees of the national park, the members of its specialised commissions, the administrative council and the director of the park. It was established through two approaches, *internal meetings* and *external contacts and consultation*. It was a bottom up approach.

### I-Internal meetings

The internal meetings were based mainly on the following activities: a)-Seminars and workshops, which regrouped the field and the administration employees on thematic issues such as forest, agriculture, tourism, construction and landscape work. b)-A series of meetings for the seven specialised commissions as well as the scientific committee of the park which includes agriculture and forestry, cynegetic, tourism and information, culture and education, water and hunting, architecture and site, development and local relations. c)-A series of meeting with the administrative council and the permanent commission which studied the proposition already developed.

### II-External consultations

Seeking external consultation was beneficial since it added new ideas to the programme. This approach targeted two main stakeholders the public institutions and the local communities. It was implemented in two ways, an *auditing mission* by the public institutions addressed mainly to the park administrators and a *consultation approach* addressing the local communities.

**1-Auditing mission:** This process includes evaluation of the national parks politics. The former Ministry of Planning Technology and Environment (MATE) in collaboration with the general council for roads and bridges, the general council for rural engineering, water and forests, had an auditing mission at the national park of the Cévennes from June 1998 till May 1999 and has developed the following recommendations: 1)-The park is part of the French commune and world heritage; 2)-It is necessary to enhance the coherence of the politics of physical and environment regional planning in terms of government services; 3)-The park should orient its development and politics for the benefit of the local community; 4)- There is a need to implement a multi-annual action programme.

**2-Consultation approach:** This approach had the following objective: 1)-Present to the local residents of the Park a draft proposal of the future site management programme and to explain the adopted solutions; 2)-Collect and include the propositions in the selection of choices for the adoption of solutions for the programme. It was based on the following methodology: 1)-A *print out* that presents the project's physical boundaries and includes an answer form that will be sent to the 52 communes of the central zone and other key communes of the peripheral zones of the Biosphere reserves (9000 samples); 2)-*Public meetings* that took place for more than one month in the entire park's area; 3)-*Announcements* that were printed and were distributed; 4)-*Radio and press communication services* on a local level were implemented. This operation allowed for evaluating the impact of the park on the perception and practice, related to the region. It has showed a strong motivation from the residents for “making it survive”. An open dialogue on sensitive issues that touched on the management of the region has been raised. A debate in terms of the relation between the public institutions and the population has been a major part of the new programme. It incorporated a renewed regional communication approach.

### 3-Administrative procedures for the adoption of the program

The process for the adoption of the physical and regional management and planning programme for the coming six years continues with the follow administrative steps: *First*, a final document based on the *internal meetings* and *external consultations* is prepared and approved by the Administrative Council of the park and submitted to the National Council for the Protection of Nature (NCPN) and to the Ministry of Ecology and Sustainable Development (MESD) for opinion. This document is returned to the Administrative Council which decides on adopting it or not. Once ratified, it is subject to an approbation decree by the MESD.



#### **4-Major components of the Programme**

The programme for management and planning of the site incorporates two components a *strategic-programming* and an *operational* component.

a-The strategic component covers the following directives: 1)-Conserve and develop the potentials of the residents and the natural environment; 2)-Protect the species of heritage interest (fauna and flora); 3)-Control the fauna prey to a level that is compatible with the safeguarding of the environment and the activities that contributes to its richness; 4)-Preserve the character of the landscape of the Cévennes; 5)-Associate safeguard of the heritage and cultural development; 6)-Suggest “Les Cévennes National Park” as a destination place ; 7) Instigate an entertainment and a discovery tourism that is spread in a balanced manner in the entire region; 8)-Encourage a permanent life with respect to the environment and the landscape; 9)-Encourage an agriculture that respects the environment and is adapted to the diversity of the area; 10)-Valorise the national park’s products through a production process that is considered sustainable; 11)-Develop a partnership of projects with the local communities, stakeholders and key players;

b-The operational component incorporated the following recommendations: 1)-Encourage the research, development of knowledge, and experimentation etc; 2)-Favour the contractual management and the partnership; 3)-Implement the laws and regulations concerning the protection of the environment and adapt the regulations of the park on the major issues; 4)-Spread the “Value of the Park” to all the public; 5)-Adapt the financial interventions of “Les Cévennes National Park” to the regional planning project; 6)-Adapt the means of the regional planning project such as modernisation of the institutions.

#### **5-Evaluation of the progress for park’s management and administrators**

On a ministerial level an evaluation of activities report is issued every three years to the ministry of ecology and sustainable development. On an internal management level, an evaluation report of the site agents’ progress and productivity is yearly presented to the director of the Park.

#### **6-Budget of the park**

Ministry of Ecology and Sustainable Development (previously Ministry of Environment) specifies the budget of the park. The sources of which is 95% from the government and 5% from local revenues. The process starts with a request “need report” issued by the administration of the park in June-July. In such a request an increase in the budget should not exceed 30% of the previous one. At a later stage the Director of the park is requested to defend his request to the ministry of ecology and sustainable development. In September-October the minister of ecology presents this request to the minister of budget, who in agreement with the minister of agriculture, and minister of ecology and sustainable development specify how much, should be given to the park. The average amount given to the Park is 6 million Euros per year. It is divided as follows: 1)-55% on the salaries; 2)-15% on the equipment, operation, maintenance, etc; 3)-30% on the investments for development. The investments are mainly funded as follows: 1)-25% coming from the ministry of ecology and sustainable development; 2)-75% from European Union funds (The park has established a network of European credits).The deliberation of the budget, the financial account as well as any account relative to changing furniture or properties of the public institutions can not be executed unless approved by the minister of ecology and sustainable development and the minister of finance.



# Certificat

**EUROPARC**  
FEDERATION



**LA CHARTE EUROPÉENNE  
DU TOURISME DURABLE DANS  
LES ESPACES PROTÉGÉS**

La Charte européenne veut contribuer à l'application de l'Agenda 21, le programme d'action pour un développement durable adopté par les Nations-Unies en 1992 à Rio de Janeiro.

La Charte a pour objectif de promouvoir un tourisme durable dans les espaces protégés, plus particulièrement dans les parcs nationaux et naturels. Ces espaces doivent garantir une offre touristique respectueuse de la nature et des paysages, adaptée aux besoins des visiteurs comme des habitants locaux et contribuant au développement économique des régions concernées.

Les conditions préalables à la signature de la Charte européenne sont une analyse de la situation dans tous les champs d'action touristique concernés, l'élaboration d'une stratégie et la formulation d'un plan d'action pour les cinq prochaines années par le parc en question.

La Charte européenne attache une importance particulière à l'intégration continue de tous les acteurs concernés par l'activité touristique à la conception et à la réalisation du concept touristique.

**Engagement du parc**

Le Parc national et Réserve de biosphère des Cévennes s'engage à respecter les principes de la Charte européenne du tourisme durable pour les espaces protégés et à réaliser la stratégie et le plan d'action.

**Reconnaissance d'EUROPARC**

Le Parc national et Réserve de biosphère des Cévennes remplit les conditions d'adhésion à la Charte européenne du tourisme durable dans les espaces protégés.  
La certification est valable cinq ans.

Gérard Moulinas  
Directeur Parc national et Réserve de biosphère des Cévennes  
A Llandudno, le 5 octobre 2002

Patrizia Rossi  
Présidente d'EUROPARC  
A Llandudno, le 5 octobre 2002

*Patrizia Rossi*



**The twelve principles of the European chart for sustainable tourism in protected areas**

- 1) Recognize that the parks of Europe are part of our cultural heritage and that they should be preserved for the present and future generations,
- 2) Develop and manage the tourism in a sustainable manner, while taking into consideration the needs for the environment, the residents, the tourism operators and the visitors,
- 3) Involve all the parties that are directly concerned by the tourism,
- 4) Develop and execute a strategy and an action plan for sustainable tourism,
- 5) Offer to the visitors a high quality experience during their visit,
- 6) Invent tourism products that are specific for the discovery of the protected areas,
- 7) Efficiently inform the visitors about the specific values of the territory,
- 8) Disseminate the “know how” of the protected areas to the tourism operators,
- 9) Be sure that the tourism will not affect the residents’ quality of life,
- 10) Protect and value the natural and cultural heritage as a means to benefit tourism
- 11) Bring local benefit by mean of tourism
- 12) Manage the tourism influx in a way that will reduce negative impact.



## Appendix 14 Cultural and Tourism capital at the Qadisha-Cedars region

The built cultural heritage, which is quite authentic due to little use of inappropriate conservation techniques, includes limestone caves and four primary monastic complexes:

- 1)-*Qannoubine Monastery* which was cut into the rock hundreds of years ago and includes a church, cloister, monastic cells, and mattresses/kitchen for pilgrims;
- 2)-*Monastery of St. Anthony of Qozhaya*, dating back about 1000 years and restored in the 16<sup>th</sup> Century which includes a meeting room, chapel, mill, and hermitages;
- 3)-*Monastery of Our Lady of Haouqa (Saydet Haouqa)* founded in the late 13<sup>th</sup> Century, which includes a hermitage of two levels and a water channel; the upper cave dates back to the Paleolithic period, and;
- 4)-*Monastery of Mar Lichaa (Mar Lisa or St. Lichaa)*, which dates back to at least the 14<sup>th</sup> Century, and is shared by the Maronite order the Barefoot Carmelite order. It includes a few cells, a refectory, offices, and a church cut into the rock.

Other monastic establishments include the Monastery of Mar Georges, the Monastery of Mar Youhana, and the Monastery of Mar Abun with the Hermitage of Mar Sarkis. There is another group of monasteries in the adjoining Hadchit valley, founded by Ethiopian monks who were expelled from Ehden. This group includes Deir el-Salib, Mar Antonios, Mar Semaan, Mar Assia, Mar Bohna, and Mar Chmouna. In the towns at the rim of the valley there are numerous cultural heritage buildings, as detailed above, particularly in Hadath El Jobbé, Hasroun, and Bcharre, including private residences, churches, and Khalil Goubran's childhood home and a museum dedicated to his memory which includes an extensive art collection, his furniture, and his tomb. In the valley, there are a few stone buildings remaining that are inhabited by tenant farmers, but are owned by the Patriarchate. They date back to the 19<sup>th</sup> C. In order to facilitate preservation of heritage buildings in the villages and in the Qadisha valley and to increase interest in cultural tourism, the USEK Architecture Department completed a photo survey of Hadchit's architectural heritage and adaptive re-use designs for Saydet el Karma Village structures (some occupied and some abandoned). Qadisha is famous for its folkloric songs. An important site is the Qadisha Grotto at the far eastern end of the valley. It is the source of the Qadisha River that flows to Tripoli. MoT is involved in a project to prepare it for tourism. Currently, its panoramic walkway is dangerous with steep drop offs, a lack of handrails, wet sections, and holes in the pathway.

The Epic of Gilgamesh, found in central Mesopotamia and the Bible refer to the Cedars of Lebanon as sacred trees, and their wood was highly prized in the ancient world and contributed to the construction of many religious buildings in the Holy Land. Since the 17<sup>th</sup> Century, the Cedars have been welcoming religious pilgrimage, and the symbol of the cedar tree has been incorporated into the Lebanese flag. The traditional landscape of Qadisha includes the Holy River (Nahr Qadisha), celebrated in the Bible, and terraces created by hermits but continued by local people for growing grain, grapes, and olives. Some of these are in poor condition, but could be revitalized with not only olives trees but also high value crops such as persimmons or other fruits and vegetables. The natural heritage also includes Al Cornet Al Sawda (tallest peak), and Aayoun Urghouch (lake).

### Tourism Facilities

- Lodging - The villages offered 9 one to three star hotels plus seasonal rentals of houses and apartments. The ski area also has hotels and condos.
- Museums/Visitor Centres – Bcharre offers a couple of very interesting museums including Khalil Goubran's childhood home and a museum/art gallery in his honor, which is housed in a former monastery (also his tomb). There are also the monasteries listed under cultural heritage assets and a museum at the Church of the Patriarch in Diman.
- Restaurants/Cafes – There are perhaps 8 or so primary restaurants in the villages with a total of 20 restaurants, 12 grocery stores, 16 snack shops, and one bakery. Outside the casa, there is a well known restaurant in Ehden.
- Shopping – Although there are a number of shops, only one handicraft shop was mentioned (selling cedars wood product). Bcharre has indicated that one of their



traditional handicrafts is painting on glass, although we have never seen it in the market. At the Cedars, there are a number of vendors, bunched together selling cedar wood products, sunglasses, hats, etc.

- Entertainment – It appears that dining is the primary source of entertainment, although in the winter the Cedars Ski Resort is open. The villages at the rim of Qadisha have 3 internet shops and 2 nightclubs. Many of the villages hold interesting local festivals or feasts during the summer. Bcharre, for example, hosts three.

Cultural Heritage in the Study Area	
VILLAGE	RESOURCE
Aabdine	Rich in figs and grapes
Balaouza	Saint Barbara Old church in the middle of the village
Ban (Bane)	Old church in the middle of the village
Bazoun	Nabeaa Mabkha Tourist Park
Bcharre	Local hotels Local restaurants Khalil Goubran House Museum Gibran Cultural Week (August) Khalil Goubran Art/Heritage Museum Mar Sarkis reserve (nearby) *Deir Mar Elishaa (Monastery St. Elishaa) Mar Saba (cathedral) Trail to Holy valley Notre Dame Church Phoenician Cemetery Apple agriculture
Beqaa Kafra	St. Charbel Festival (July) Organic vegetables
Barhelioun	Olive and grape terraces Deir Sayyedet Deirouna Deir Sayyedet Sheera Deir Mar Nohra (Monastery St. Nora)
Billa	Figs and grapes
Blaouza (Blawza)	Trail to valley Old houses
Bqorqacha	Deir Mar Semaan (St. Simon) Deir Mar Youhanna Deir Mar Jeyes Deir Mar Takla Phoenician Sarcophagus (Jewish Trough) 19 <sup>th</sup> C. architectural heritage houses
Breesat	Patrimonial houses
Cedars	Cedars Forest Reserve Cedars ski facilities (Cedars Resort, by Shore and Mountain Resorts, includes a complex of 3 lodging facilities: L' Auberge Des Cedres, La Grand Ourse, and La Petite Ourse (log cabins) plus The Lodge Restaurant) St. Bernard Hotel Qornet el Sawda
Diman	Patriarchate Summer Residence & Museum Al Korn Forest
Ehden	Souk and main square La Mairie Hotel (4 star) Mar Sarkis restaurant



VILLAGE	RESOURCE
	Saydet el Hosn (Our Lady of the Citadel) Deir Mar Abin with Hermitage Mar Sarkis Deir Qoshaya (also called Mar Antonios Qozhaya) Mar Romanas Trail to the Holy valleys Horsh Ehden Nature Reserve
El Arz/Tannourine	Hadath El Arz Cedar Forest (near Hadath el Jobbé)
Hadath el Jobbé (ej Joubbe)	Strong urban architectural heritage Grotto of Aasi El Hadath Mar Daniel Church Stone tower and sarcophagus Scout Camps Two Hotels
Hadchit (Hadsheet or Hadshit)	Strong urban architectural heritage About 6-8 windmills for olive and oil production Deir Es Salib/Monastery of the Cross and frescoes 6-8 old mills
Hadchit valley	Deir Es Salib Mar Assia Mar Bahna Mar Chmouna Cemetery of the village Trail to valley
Hasroun	Strong urban architectural heritage Hotels and restaurant Path to Mir Mikhail and Monastery of Mar Yaqoub (St. Jacob) Old village church Several Artificial lakes
Koniour (Knaiouer)	Deir Mar Doumit Forest of pine and oak Architectural fabric
Mazraat Bany Saab	old church
Monasteries not listed elsewhere	Our Lady of Haouqa (Saydet Hauqqa) Deir Mar Girgis Deir Hammatura
Qadisha Region (Qadisha is the Semitic word for Holy)	folkloric songs, dairy products, apples, other fruits, wine vinegar, arak, olive terraces, vegetables Qadisha River Qadisha Grotto Aayoun Urghouch (lake)
Qanat (Qnat) (near Hadath ej Joubbe)	Grotto of Mar Shallita Cedars of Qanat Reserve
Qannoubine (Wadi Qannoubine)	Saydet el Karma village Old houses of Qannoubine village Saydet el Karma village Deir Mar Aboun Deir Mar Semaan Deir Sayyedet Qannoubine Deir Saint Marina (Cemetery of Patriarch)
Torza	Grottos of Al Sabeaa & Al Dilmar



## Appendix 15 Description of fauna and flora in the region of Qadisha-Cedars

In Bcharre, one can notice the following two zones: the Mediterranean and the Oromediterranean mountains' zones. The Mediterranean mountain zone is situated between approximately 1200 and 2200 m. It is rocky and mountainous with sharp slopes and is distinctive as the native land of *Cedrus libani*. Other companion trees are *Quercus*, *Cupressus*, *Pinus*, *Abies*, *Populus*, *Platanus*, *Juniperus* and *Pistacia*, and constitute a very rich ecosystem in plant species. In this zone the forest of "Cedars' of God" (occupying an area of 11 ha, contains 376 cedars with some over 1000 years old) and the Tannourine and Hadath El-Jobbé forest extend and are declared protected zones by the MoA (Photograph 2 and 3). The fauna described in this type of unique ecosystem ranges from the various types of birds (eagles, owls, robins, etc...) to wild animals (hyenas, boars, wolves, squirrels, snakes, bats, and rats). On the other hand the Oromediterranean zone is situated at around 2000 m and reaches the highest summits of 3088 m at Qornet el Sawda. Its main vegetation species present are the the *Juniperus excelsa*.

Scientific research conducted over the past five years on the flora of the Qadisha valley by plant experts Myrna Semaan and Ricardus El Haber (2000) has revealed the occurrence of about one thousand species of wild flowering plants, in addition to an extensive variety of ally important wild fruit trees. Such rare finds were highly appreciated by all who witnessed the region's landscape. According to R. El Haber, the most important ecological reasons that necessitate the urgent protection and conservation of the Qadisha Region (Dahr El Kadib Mountain, The Cedar Grove, Mar Elias Mountain, Qannoubine and Qoshaya River valleys, in addition to their extension valley of Kosba) are:

- 1- The extremely high habitat diversity reflecting high topographic, climatic and geological peculiarities;
- 2- The high biologic diversity reflected by thousands of species of flora and fauna, of which many are endemic either solely to Lebanon or to the region;
- 3- The uniqueness of such an integrated group of ecosystems (Alpine and Sub-alpine mountains, watersheds, valleys and rivers)

The following Figures highlight the importance of the Qadisha ecosystem:

- o Flora taxa named after Lebanon in Qadisha valley: 26 species, 7 subspecies, and 9 varieties;
- o Qadisha valley is characterized by a high degree of endemic flora in the 912 species (32 % of Lebanese flora), 163 subspecies (5.6 %), and 118 varieties (4%);
- o Status of plant taxa in Qadisha valley: 74 taxa Endangered, 174 taxa Rare, 138 taxa Localized, and 37 taxa Sporadic;
- o Life span of Qadisha valley flora: 291 Annual species, 43 Biennial species, 568 Perennials species, and 27 arborescent species.

**Horsh Ehden** (a nature reserve in proximity of the Qadisha-Cedars region)

Preliminary research (El Haber and Semaan) revealed the occurrence of more than 700 taxonomically established wild flowering plants. These comprise 43 species of tall and small trees and shrubs, in addition to *Cedrus libani* Rich., of which more than twenty thousand wholesome specimens exist. It is noteworthy to mention that Horsh Ehden is the last refuge of more than 60 endemic species of flowering plants, several of which exist nowhere else in the world (Mouterde, 1983). Close revisiting of the forest's flora has already rewarded the world with seven new species that are being described and named (Semaan and El-Haber). These would be added to more than 30 flowering plants of the forest that have long been taxonomically named after Lebanon.

At this point, the faunal assets of the forest ought to be highlighted. However, these remain dependent on the energy flow they receive from the plant-based trophic level. Furthermore, their abundance and diversity only reflect that of their floral resources. Hence, their conservation remains dependent on the successful conservation of the biodiversity of the flora.



Degree of Endemism in the Flora of Qadisha valley

Country (region)	Number of taxa	% of Leb. flora
Lebanon	53	6
Lebanon + Syria	38	4
Lebanon + Turkey	26	3
Lebanon + Palestine	3	3
Lebanon + Syria + Palestine	42	4.6
Lebanon + Syria + Turkey	93	19
Lebanon + Syria + Turkey + Palestine	47	5
Levant	75	8.2

Description of fauna in the Qadisha-Cedars region

Terrestrial Fauna

This section describes the fauna of Bcharre. The Mount Lebanon range and the riversides are also considered rich in fauna. Within the scope of this study, it is difficult to perform a complete faunal survey; however, information was collected from available literature such as the MoA and UNEP biodiversity study, 1996, as well as from personal contacts, interviews with locals and researchers, and species encountered during the field visits, in addition to species listed as found in the habitats of the study area. Furthermore, several species as yet unknown

Amphibians and reptiles

There are in total 5 reported species of amphibians in Lebanon: 4 species of frogs and toads, and 1 species of salamander. However, this list was identified as “undoubtedly incomplete” (MoA, UNEP, 1996). Reported species of reptiles in Lebanon is 43; species that are or might be present in the study area include:

- 1 land tortoise (encountered during field visits);
- 1 terrapin;
- 1 aquatic tortoise (encountered during field visits);
- 20 lizards of which one endemic species of Lizard *Lacerta frastii* carnivorous living at high altitudes (Bcharre);
- 13 non-venomous grass snakes;
- 2 venomous grass snakes;
- 2 venomous vipers.

Urbanization and destruction of natural biotypes is the main factor affecting the ecosystem of these animals.

Birds

There are 337 bird species noted in Lebanon, of which there are 65 species that have strayed into the region, 100 nesting species, 170 migratory species that winter here, 2 recently introduced species, and 10 with no recent data. Although there are no endemic species in Lebanon there is however a semi-species (*Alectoris chukar*) and some Asian breeds. Rare and quite rare species make up 26.5 % of all species observed in Lebanon equating to 37 species. According to the analysis of the national biodiversity report study team (MoA and UNEP, 1996), the avifauna of



the forests of the high mountains is as large as that of the Bekaa (71 species). The forests and woods of Mount Lebanon provide shelter to 87 species, which is considered as an underestimation due to the difficulty to spot migratory birds in thick woods (see table 2). Present birds listed as threatened (IUCN) and potentially are found in the study area (adapted from METAP, 1995).

Threatened Bird Species found in Lebanon

Bird species	Status (B/NB) <sup>1</sup>	Habitat	Threat <sup>2</sup>	IUCN threat status
Greater spotted eagle ( <i>Aquila clanga</i> )	NB	Forests, woodlands, and wetlands	LoH, D	Small declining population; Severe fragmentation >1000 individuals (vulnerable)
Imperial eagle ( <i>Aquila heliaca</i> )	NB	Forests, woodlands, and grasslands	LoH, H, D, P, T	Small declining population
Lesser Kestrel ( <i>Falconaumannii</i> )	NB	Natural lands	LoH, P	Rapid decline

<sup>1</sup>B=breeding; NB=non breeding  
<sup>2</sup>LoH= loss of habitat; H = hunting, trapping; P = pollution, pesticides, poisoning; D=disturbance (Human activities); T = trade and egg collecting

Mammals

There are 52 reported mammal species in Lebanon, in addition 7 are already extinct. Bats make up the largest single group of mammals (16 species). About one third are rare, and another 39% are vulnerable species or species in apparent danger (Ecodit, 2001). According to the national biodiversity study (MoA and UNEP 1996), 7 mammal species are already extinct from the Lebanese wild lands. Tohme *et al.* (1985) and the MoA and UNEP biodiversity report (1996).

The wolf, the wild cat, the mongoose, and the squirrel are considered to be very close to extinction (MoA and UNEP, 1996). Locals claim to have seen wolves in the mountain tops and Dahr El Qadib, and wild cats in forests of the Bcharre area. (personal contacts). Some of those species were identified during the field survey to be found in the study area such as the fox (encountered in Bcharre), the field mouse, the jird, the snow vole and the levant vole identified by locals (field survey; personal contacts). Furthermore, the area might also contain the hedgehog *Erinaceus europaeus concolor*, which is common in Lebanon. Its habitat appears not to extend beyond an altitude of 1300 m and its extension is limited by desert and arid zones. It is common in woods and olive groves.



## Appendix 16 Major villages' description at the Qadisha-Cedars region

**Blaouza** has a population of 235 people, and has the cultural heritage site of Saint Barbara, two restaurants, and one cedar woodcrafts shop; **Barhelioun** has a population of 1300 people. It has the religious cultural heritage sites of Deir Sayyedet Deirouna, Deir Sayyedet Sheera, and Deir Mar Nohra. It has only 20 – 40 tourists per year plus scout groups who come to camp. There is one restaurant, one internet caf , one gift shop, and four poultry farms, but no hotels. Natural resources include olive and grape terraces. It suffers air pollution from a tar factory; **Bazoun** has a population of 4000 people in summer. It has one hotel (the Karam) with eight rooms and the Nabeaa Mabkha Tourist Park. Its unemployment rate is around 20%; **Bcharre** is known for being the birthplace of Gibran Khalil Gibran, and the house where he lived as a child is open to the public. There is also a museum where he was buried, featuring his paintings and furnishings, outside the town. It is open in summer and winter. The village has 3 hotels. Near Bcharre is Deir Mar Elichaa or the Monastery of Saint Eliseus, with habitation dating back to the 14<sup>th</sup> century. Between Bcharre and the Cedars is the Qadisha Grotto. Between Bcharre and Hadchit is a path to a rock-cut sanctuary venerated by nursing women. Its walls are covered with 14<sup>th</sup> century paintings. The Hotel Chbat offers its guests a walking tour of 11 days for a comprehensive look at the Holy valley. In mid-August, Bcharre holds a Gibran Cultural Week; **Bkarkasha** with 5000 people and 50% unemployment has a number of sites including the religious sites of Deir (convent) Mar Semaan (Saint Simon), the old church of Mar Nohra, Deir Mar Youhanna (John), Deir Mar Jerjes (George), Deir Mar Takla. They also identified a Phoenician Sarcophagus (locally known as the Jewish Trough) and four natural springs; **Beqaa Kafra** –The highest village in Lebanon offers historically preserved houses and was the birthplace of Saint Charbel. He is feasted annually on the third Sunday of July. The author of the research attended the feast, and was very impressed by its joyous, medieval character. Cars were banned from the upper level of the village, and shuttle buses were operating. Visitors walked uphill about one kilometer to the village, where roving musicians and shops offered entertainment and food/drink late into the night. With a population of 1000 people, **Diman** has a couple of tourism resources including the Patriarchate but there were no hotels and only four snack shops. Although there were no brochures, the Diman Union Club was intending to develop one; **Hadath El Jobb ** has an architectural heritage that is very important to the area. Citizens commented on their interest in being included in a mandatory protection program. They identified a number of cultural heritage sites including the Grotto of Aasi El Hadath, the ancient church of Mar Daniel, which is visited by approximately 3000 tourists annually, and a stone tower and ancient sarcophagus. They also identified the Hadath El Arz cedar forest, which is under protection. The municipality has been quite active, marketing tourism locally and internationally (booklets and a committee to safeguard the youth). There are three hotels with a total of 210 rooms that are open all year long in addition to 420 houses for seasonal rent, and three restaurants, five snack shops, a bakery, and an internet cafe. The primary employer is FAP furniture and mattress company. With a population of 1100 people, 15% are unemployed; **Hadchit** has two convents located in the Qadisha valley and two restaurants. (Deir es Salib or the Monastery of the Cross lies 30 minutes downhill from the village. The DGA is involved in a project to restore the structure and consolidate the frescoes.) Their population is 4000 people in the summer and 2500 in the winter with an unemployment rate of 60%. (A resource that was mentioned by DGA is the Greenland River, known for its fish.); **Hasroun** has a number of heritage buildings worthy of preservation with their red tiled roofs and arched balconies (5-7 arches). Respondents to the questionnaire did not mention any historic sites but they listed 30 shops, 8 restaurants, 2 nightclubs, and 3 hotels with 35 rooms each. Hasroun is known for a local restaurant that offers one of the most dramatic views in Lebanon, and people from Tripoli go there to admire the view of the Holy valley. During the summer, the population is 10,000 people, 40% of whom are unemployed, and 3000 in the winter, 90% of whom are unemployed. The village has traditional red-roofed houses, and a path to the old church of Mar Mikhail and the Monastery of Mar Yaqoub or Saint Jacob.; **Haouqa** did not respond to the questionnaire. It is a tiny village near Blawza off the main road and not within the World Heritage site boundaries; **Knaiouer** identified two cultural heritage sites in Al Kahafa, Deir Mar Youhanna and Deir Mar Doumit, and a forest of pine and oak trees that overlook the Holy valley. The village's hotel wasn't working, but there were four snack bars. Knaiouer has an old architectural fabric, and it is under development pressure to allow new, tall construction; With 600 people, **Mazraat Bany Saab** identified an ancient church and historical houses, and noted that tourists do stop in the town. **Qanat** identified two cultural resources, the Grotto of Mar Shallita and the valley



of Mar Shallita. They also identified the Cedars of Qanat reserve. Although there were no hotels, there were seasonal rentals available, and 3 restaurants and 3 snack shops. Qanat had a relatively large goat farm of 200 animals. With 4000 people, 40% were unemployed. With 300 people and an unemployment rate of 80%, Qannoubine identified three cultural heritage sites: Deir Maroun, the ancient Maronite Patriarchate, and Deir Sayyedet Qannoubine (which was the residence of the Maronite Patriarchs from the 15<sup>th</sup> to the 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. DGA is involved in a project with UNESCO, ICCROM, and the Patriarch to consolidate the frescoes. *Nearby is the Chapel of Saint Marina where 22 Maronite Patriarchs are buried. Their annual visitation rate is 30,000 tourists at a rate of 500 per day in summer, 150 per day in spring, and 100 per day in winter.* (DGA thought that there were 10 houses in Qannoubine Village in the Holy valley.); Torza identified two cultural heritage sites: the Grottos of Al Sabeaa and Al Dilmar, with a population of 1200 people, 45% being unemployed. Nearby is the village of Ehden, with a population of approximately 7000 people, which was born in the Middle Ages, and is known for its souk (market place), picturesque main square (midan), restaurants (particularly Nabaa Mar Sarkis known for its mezze), and Saydet el Hossn (Our Lady of the Citadel). The city offers the only four star hotel in the area (La Mairie), and two other hotels. Nearby is Deir Mar Sarkiss, with chapels dating to the 13<sup>th</sup>-14<sup>th</sup> Centuries. Also nearby is Horsh Ehden, one of Lebanon's premiere nature reserves. The Cedars offers 5 hotels, most of which offer two star facilities. In the past, a Festival of the Cedars was held, but the Ministry of Environment felt it was hurting the natural resource base.



## Appendix 17 Economic activities in the Qadisha-Cedars area of study

According to the social survey conducted as part of the Study, the agricultural land occupies 2,426 ha or only 15 % of the total land area (161 km<sup>2</sup>) of the Caza, decreased from 3,652 ha in 1960 (FAO, 1997). Fruit trees occupy 2,170 ha, consisting mainly of apples, citrus and pears, followed by olives, almond and grapes occupying 100 ha or less. The agricultural sector employs 19.5 % of the labour force (4,961 in total), consisting of 946 male and 20 female. Of those in agricultural employment, some 40 % are engaged in apple production, producing 25,000 ton crop. Assuming the average yield of 25ton/ha, a total of 1,000 ha is devoted to active apple production, corresponding to 40 % of the agricultural land. This is smaller than the FAO statistics showing 1,500 ha in apple production. Active apple producing farmers represent about 200 farm families, owning on an average 5 ha farm land per family. Livestock activities in the Caza are dominated by small ruminants with 11,406 goats and 5,420 heads of sheep (FAO, 1997). Poultry is insignificant with 6,000 birds, and cattle is almost non-existent (87 cows). Manufacturing industries employ 8.9 % of the Caza labour force, consisting of 392 male and 50 female (CAS, 1997). Including mining, utilities and construction sub sector, the industry sector employs 1,579 workers or 31.8 % of the total labor force. There exist 55 small handicraft businesses in the Caza as reported by the social survey. The service sector employs 2,415 or 48.7% of the Caza labour force. Private services are led by trade and maintenance employing (563), followed by transport and communications (272), and hotels, restaurants and cafes (131).

### Caza Ranking based on Shares of Low Income Households

(Caza)	Low	Medium	High	Total
1. Bent Jbeil	76.2%	28.5%	4.34%	100%
2. Hermel	65.9%	28.6%	5.58%	100%
3. Aakkar	63.3%	29.1%	7.59%	100%
4. Marjaayoun	60.0%	32.3%	7.63%	100%
5. Minie	54.2%	39.3%	6.51%	100%
6. Baalbeck	49.2%	40.1%	10.7%	100%
7. Tyre	45.0%	41.0%	14.0%	100%
8. Hasbaiya	41.5%	48.4%	10.1%	100%
9. Nabatiye	40.0%	47.4%	12.6%	100%
10. Rashaiya	39.5%	51.9%	8.66%	100%
11. Jezzine	35.7%	38.2%	26.9%	100%
12. Tripoli	32.1%	41.6%	26.4%	100%
13. Bcharre	34.8%	45.4%	19.8%	100%
14. Batroun	34.2%	45.0%	20.8%	100%
Lebanon Average	32.1%	41.6%	26.4%	100%
15. Baabda	31.6%	42.2%	26.1%	100%
16. Chouf	31.0%	50.0%	19.0%	100%
17. Western Bekaa	30.7%	53.6%	15.8%	100%
18. Jbeil	30.1%	46.7%	23.2%	100%
19. Zgharta	29.7%	43.0%	27.3%	100%
20. Saida	28.9%	45.3%	25.8%	100%
21. Zahle	29.7%	43.0%	27.3%	100%
22. Koura	27.0%	44.7%	28.3%	100%
23. Alley	25.0%	45.6%	29.3%	100%
24. Maten	19.7%	43.9%	36.4%	100%
25. Beirut	18.4%	38.7%	43.0%	100%
26. Kesrouan	13.5%	38.3%	48.2%	100%

Source: UNDP, 1998; 2000; 2003a; 2004



**Appendix 18 Scoping of the tourism impacts**

Possible impacts could result from tourist development projects in the villages surrounding the Qadisha valley. They are described by the JICA and CDR study below. More detailed analysis of the impacts and their significance can be assessed once the projects are clearly defined. An EIA should be conducted in parallel to the design phase of the projects. At this stage, only the potential impacts are identified and briefly described (ARD, 2001).

**Impacts during Construction**

Identification of potential impacts is facilitated by the use of a matrix that could arise from the different activities related to the construction phase of the development plan (table, 1). Activities during construction would consist primarily of construction, transportation of raw materials and personnel, and road enlargement.

**Table-1 Impact Identification Matrix – Construction Phase**

Activity \ Impact	Construction	Transportation	Road enlargement
Air Quality	-	-	-
Water quality	-	0	0
Flora	-	0	-
Fauna	-	-	0
Socio-	+	+	+
Health	-	0	0
Solid Waste	-	0	-
Noise	-	-	-
Landscape	-	0	-
Cultural heritage	0	0	0

Source: JICA *et al.*, 2004

Legend

- 0 → Moderate
- → negative impact
- + → positive impact
- ± → Both positive and negative impacts

**Impact on Air Quality**

Air emissions are mainly related to transportation of material by trucks and from dust which would be produced during construction and road enlargement. While some increase in air pollutants could be observed during the construction phase, especially dust from construction, the significance is likely to be limited given that the construction activities should have a limited duration of time and be of limited scale.

**Impact on Water Resources**

Impact on surface water and ground water would be evident if waste produced during construction is directly discharged in nearby streams. Waste oil from trucks could also pollute water sources if inadequately discharged. Its significance is again



dependent on the project construction duration and scale.

### **Impact on Biodiversity**

The impact on biodiversity is related to the location of the project. Dust would have a negative effect on nearby trees. It could form a coating on the leaves and reduce photosynthesis. Long exposure of trees to dust could cause damage and ultimately death. Permanent destruction of habitats could be significant if the location of a facility is poor and extends over an area harbouring important species. It is therefore very important that placing of facilities take into consideration the location of sensitive natural areas.

### **Socio- Impact**

The construction of a visitor centre and the road development in the area would create new job opportunities for local communities. No negative socio- impacts are anticipated during the construction phase. On the contrary, this phase should generate some temporary jobs that would benefit local communities. It is assumed that locals would be hired during construction activities.

### **Health Impacts**

Health impacts during construction could affect mainly workers. Those exposed to dust could have throat and nose allergies, skin and eye irritations, and respiratory problems. The significance of this impact would depend on the safety code maintained at the construction sites, as well as the duration and scale of the activities.

### **Noise Impact**

An increase in noise levels could be noticed close to construction sites and also due to the movement of trucks. Such an impact should however not be significant depending on the total duration and scale of the project.

### **Potential Impacts during Operation**

Table-2 identifies the different impacts that could result from the implementation of the tourism development plan. One can notice that several negative impacts could result from a tourism development plan, especially in an area with such a rich biodiversity and endowed with important water resources, not to mention that it includes a World Heritage Site. These potential impacts are described and discussed in more detail in the subsequent paragraphs, and are summarized in Table-3.



Table-2 Impact Identification Matrix – Operation Phase

Potential Impact	Nature of the Impact
Air Quality	-
Water quality and quantity	-
Flora	-
Fauna	-
Socio-economic	±
Solid waste	-
Noise	-
Land-use	-
Energy consumption	0

Legend

- 0 → Moderate
- → negative impact
- + → positive impact
- ± → Both positive and negative impacts

Table-3 Potential Negative Impacts from Tourism Development affecting the Environment

Tourism development consequence	Associated Possible Impact	Significance
Traffic increase	Air pollution, noise and dust	Short-term
Unplanned road extension	Intrude on undisturbed ecosystems	Long-term, high especially in sensitive and areas of high endemism
Increased demand on the infrastructure; haphazard and unsanitary open waste dumps	Pollution from inadequate disposal of solid waste and wastewater	Short-term if adequate infrastructure is provided
Mechanized sports in natural areas	Extensive damage to soils and plant cover and fauna	Long-term, especially on the mountain top and areas of high endemism
Increase in population, demand on resources	Overexploitation, depletion of resources, illegal cutting, land destruction	Long-term
Skiing activities	Direct damage to soil and flora	Long-term
Misuse of recreational sites	Littering, cutting down of trees and bushes for firewood	Long-term
Unlicensed hunting	Threats to the bird population	Long-term
Construction works	Land surface disturbance, and ecosystem destruction	Long-term



### **Impact on Air**

A major source of air pollution within the context of tourism is associated with transportation. However the increase in tourists will cause additional traffic in the region and release pollutants that can significantly affect the overall air quality in the area.

### **Impact on Water Resources**

An essential natural resource for tourism is water. The addition of 100,000 visitors would require water for drinking, showering, clean sheets and bath towels. In addition to exerting a pressure on water demand, water pollution would increase in the area especially with the increase of tourist activities, which would eventually lead to a development of the area, and therefore increase levels of waste discharge on the environment. In order to avoid further pollution of the local water resources, it is imperative that the development plan be accompanied by projects to improve waste management in the district, particularly wastewater and solid waste.

### **Impact on Biodiversity**

All activities generated by the tourism development plan should therefore take into account the local rich biodiversity. Unless appropriate measures are undertaken, significant impacts on the long-term could be incurred to the local biodiversity due to increased number of visitors, traffic and associated pressures on the environment.

### **Socio- Impact**

The tourism development plan would encourage the construction of additional tourism superstructures such as hotels and restaurants. New houses could also need to be constructed with the influx of funds. The tourism development plan should increase the revenue of the local municipalities. In addition, the visitor centre would give more information on the historical and cultural importance of the Qadisha valley and the Cedars of Lebanon.

On the other hand, the social impact may be negative because a massive wave of tourism can put a strain on the present infrastructure (roads, water and sewage, electricity) and thus on financial capabilities of local municipalities. It may create a polarization effect between the localities that can maintain these infrastructures and attract large tourism projects, and those that cannot. In this sense, the impact will be positive if evenly spread in the region in order not to create a concentration of tourists in some towns and not in others. Thus tourism infrastructure could be medium-sized, such as smaller hotels in most towns, coupled with bed and breakfast inns and camping sites (fully equipped ones) that would attract among others, young people (foreign and Lebanese) and older backpackers that would like to visit these specific kinds of natural settings. Hence the creation and development of small-scale businesses would create local jobs for local inhabitants. There should also be human resources development in the hotel/restaurant sector, the eco-tourism sector, and to local handicrafts and small businesses.



**Solid Waste**

A common problem associated with tourists is littering, which can potentially result in the death of animals eating the litter, besides its negative impact on the landscape, which in turn would negatively affect tourism itself. An increase of tourists by 100,000 would have a negative effect on the natural ecosystems unless a proper solid waste management plan is implemented in the area.

**Impact on Noise**

Residents would experience more noise from traffic and from festivals and activities that would increase with the opening of new restaurants in the area. This is an inevitable impact, unless day activities are promoted rather than night ones.

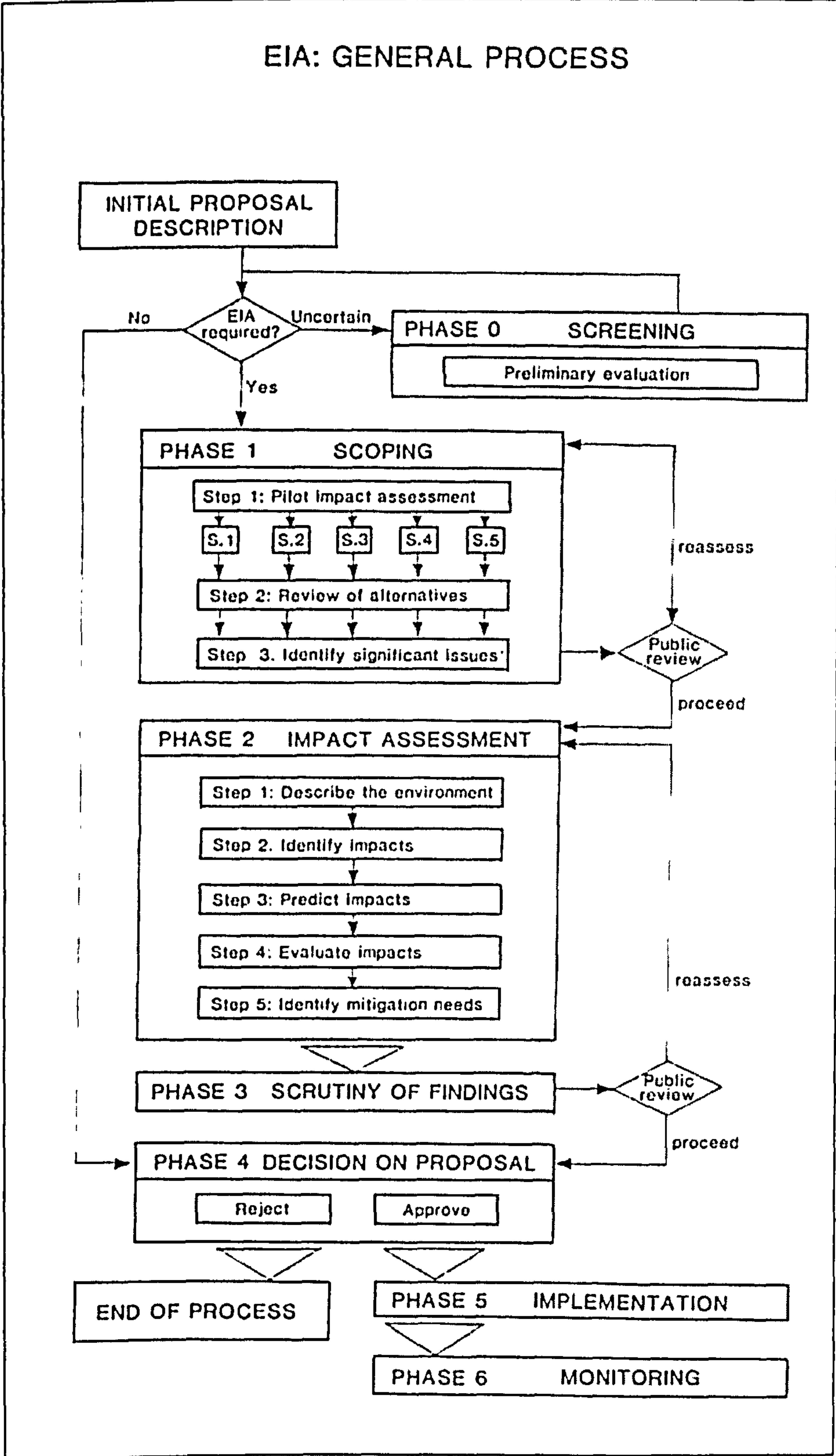
**Impact on Land-Use**

The development of a tourist visitor centre would require land. Tourism is often a competitor for land-use with other economic activities such as agriculture. The impact on land-use can only be assessed once the scale of the development is determined. However, with the assumption that the plan would encourage small-scale activities, limited impact on land-use is anticipated. Note that unplanned and uncontrolled development is also associated with the presence of uncompleted and apparently neglected houses and buildings that are unsightly and obstruct tourism. This should be in a way addressed in the tourism development plan. Bcharre district contains a World Natural Heritage Site as well as reserves and protected areas, areas of high endemism, and undisturbed natural lands. Hence any tourism project directly or indirectly affecting those areas should undergo a full EIA prior to its development. Tourism development projects should avoid construction works in areas of special concern to prevent having negative impacts on the natural environment. On the other hand, the natural environment of Bcharre offers great environmental services and high potential for ecotourism that should be exploited in a sustainable manner. The local community is desperately in need of improved economic activities, better infrastructure, and increased job opportunities. This tourism development plan is their promise to a better life for the future generations to come.



Appendix 19 EIA and SEA

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) process



Source: Kozlowski, 1990



## A comparison between the EIA and the SEA

<b>Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA)</b>	<b>Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA)</b>
<b>Represents an end</b> <b>Brings closure to an issue or undertaking.</b>	<b>Leads to a strategy</b> <b>A means to an end.</b>
<b>Goals and objective are predetermined</b> <b>EIA predicts the potential outcomes of an already predetermined option.</b>	<b>Set in context of broader vision, goals and objectives</b> <b>Examines strategies to accomplish particular goals and objectives.</b>
<b>Forecasts</b> <b>Predicts and assesses the likely outcomes of a specific undertaking.</b>	<b>Back casts, then forecasts</b> <b>Determines a range of options based on a vision, and then forecasts the likely outcomes of each option.</b>
<b>Asks “what are the impacts of our option?”</b> <b>“Option alternatives” versus “ alternative options”</b> <b>Alternatives are often limited to issues of technical design</b> <b>Management emphasis on mitigating likely negative outcomes</b>	<b>Asks “what is the preferred option?”</b> <b>“Alternatives options” versus “option alternatives”</b> <b>Broader range of alternatives at an early stage</b> <b>Minimize negative outcomes by selecting the “least negative” alternative at an early stage</b>
<b>Project-specific</b> <b>Assessment of a particular proposed undertaking</b>	<b>Not project-specific</b> <b>Focus is on alternatives, opportunities, regions and sectors.</b>
<b>Reactive</b> <b>An option is chosen and the EIA is designed to react to, or assess, that particular option</b> <b>Definitive: well-defined beginning (project proposal) and end (decision to proceed or not) to the assessment of a single undertaking</b>	<b>Proactive</b> <b>Creates and examines alternatives leading to the preferred option</b> <b>On demand: a process that can be implemented at any time should strategic choices not be meeting specific visions and objectives, or should new visions, goals, and objectives develop</b>
<b>Narrow focus and highly detailed</b> <b>Focus in on a predetermined alternative option</b> <b>Assessment is generally technical, often quantitative and highly detailed</b>	<b>Broad focus and low level of detail</b> <b>Focus is on a broad set of alternatives.</b> <b>Focus broadens moving upscale from programmes, plans and policies to alternative</b> <b>Assessment is broad, usually non-technical and qualitative</b>

Source: CSIR (1996) and World Bank (1996)



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